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CLAUDE M. FUESS

Instructor in English, Phillips Academy

Phillips Academy is not a private school, maintained entirely by the tuition fees of its students and operated primarily for the profit of the owners, but an endowed academy, controlled by a Board of Trustees, and carried on under the written constitution of its Founders. This fact gives it a certain valuable independence, removing it from the domination of any outside influence and enabling it to deal with its students without discrimination or prejudice. The original endowment, since considerably increased, was contributed largely by Samuel Phillips of Andover, and his brother, John Phillips of Exeter, New Hampshire, later the founder of Phillips Exeter Academy in 1783; but the plan of the institution was the project of Samuel Phillips, Jr., then a young man of twenty-six, who, with the help of Eliphalet Pearson, afterward first principal of the Academy, drew up the constitution and set upon it the stamp of his fine moral and intellectual character. The school was organized on April 30, 1778, with thirteen pupils; and on October 4, 1780, it was incorporated as Phillips Academy. It is therefore the earliest incorporated academy in Massachusetts, and one of the oldest of the great American secondary schools. Its influence upon the establishment of other academies of its type has been continuous and important.

The constitution, a document of extraordinary sagacity and foresight, provided the Academy with an individuality which it has

preserved to this day. The main purpose to be attained was to teach youths the "great end and real business of living." The field of instruction is indicated in the following paragraph:

In order to prevent the smallest subversion of the true intent of this Foundation, it is again declared that the *first* and *principal* object of this institution is the promotion of true Piety and Virtue; the *second*, instruction in the English, Latin, and Greek languages, together with Writing, Arithmetic, Music, and the Art of Speaking; the *third*, practical Geometry, Logic, and Geography; and the *fourth*, such other of the Liberal Arts and Sciences, or Languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and as the Trustees shall direct.

It will be noticed that while this statement is sufficiently definite, it is, at the same time, wisely elastic, allowing changes when they shall seem desirable. Without in any sense violating the intention of the Founders, the Trustees have felt free to vary the Academy curriculum in accordance with the course of educational evolution. In the constitution too it is further stipulated that the Academy "shall be ever equally open to youth, of requisite qualifications, from every quarter." In this sentence is the germ of the present cosmopolitan nature of the school, drawing, as it does, students from all over the United States, and from many foreign countries, and making room for all qualified applicants, regardless of race or nationality, religious principles, financial standing, or social position. In order to avoid sectarianism and provincialism, it was further specified that a majority of the Trustees should be laymen, and that a major part too must be non-residents of the town in which the Academy is located. The broadmindedness of Samuel Phillips has always been exemplified in the conduct of the school.

It was an indispensable part of the design, moreover, that aid toward education should be furnished to worthy scholars who might find themselves unable to meet the school expenses; and, in pursuance of this plan, funds have been generously donated by many benefactors. To this, more perhaps than to any other cause, the traditional democracy of the Academy may be ascribed.

The motto of Samuel Phillips, *Finis origine pendet*, has been amply proved in the history of the Academy. From its inception it has been liberal, democratic, and cosmopolitan, and much of its

success has lain in the scrupulous adherence of the Trustees to these ideals of its Founders. There is, unfortunately, little space in an article of this scope for dwelling on the events of its past. During the 135 years of its existence, it has had only nine principals, the most distinguished of whom have been Eliphalet Pearson, John Adams, Samuel H. Taylor, Cecil F. P. Bancroft, and the present incumbent, Alfred E. Stearns, who has held the office since 1902. With very few checks or reverses, the Academy has grown steadily and conservatively in numbers, equipment, and power. In 1842 it absorbed the Andover Teachers' Seminary, transforming it into a so-called English Department, which became, in 1893, the present scientific side of the curriculum. In 1908, with the removal of Andover Theological Seminary to Cambridge, it acquired the extensive Seminary property in Andover, thus more than doubling its previous material equipment. Today the Academy owns a Chapel, a Library and Administration Building, an Archaeology Building, three recitation halls, twelve dormitories and cottages, and six Faculty Houses with accommodations for students, besides many other buildings occupied by the Faculty and officers of the school. The plant, which is some distance from the town of Andover, contains about 240 acres of land. There are at present 592 students, from 38 states and 5 foreign countries, and 40 instructors engaged in classroom work. From every standpoint Phillips Academy has had a prosperous and creditable career.

The purpose of this paper, however, is to tell something of the present life of the Academy, its aims, its organization, and its methods. First of all, as has been suggested, it is essentially a democratic school; but the democracy is no feeling generated or cultivated artificially by those in charge, but rather an ancient tradition, grounded deep in the spirit of the institution. From the beginning there have been boys working their way through the Academy, and they have been such an active element in the student body that Dr. Stearns has frequently called them "the backbone of the school." Fully one hundred students are this year receiving assistance of various kinds in securing money for an education. Many capable applicants are given scholarships, the amount depending on their classroom standing; a large number

wait on tables at the Dining-Hall; others are provided with work by the Academy in the Library or in different school buildings. It is only rarely that an intelligent energetic boy does not obtain all the help that he needs. As a result of a sweeping reform lately instituted, these boys are now no longer segregated but are apportioned among the cottages and dormitories, even, when their scholastic record is excellent, in those where rooms are the most expensive. A wealthy boy may thus live beside one who is absolutely dependent upon his own labor for an education, and the surroundings being the same, neither feels any constraint in associating with the other. For decades the "Commons men," as they were formerly called, have been leaders in student government and on school organizations: they are welcomed everywhere on their own merits; and the gradual disuse of the term "Commons men" indicates that even the nominal distinction between them and the others will shortly disappear. A grave danger in many private schools is the spread of snobbishness and of an un-American caste antagonism. In Andover this tendency, except in isolated cases, does not exist; and the fact is the more gratifying in that democracy has been no theory preached constantly to the boys and practically thrust down their throats. The situation is accepted as a natural and wholly satisfactory one. It may be said truthfully, and with a peculiar pride, that in Phillips Academy a student comes to the front among his mates mainly through some ability or talent, seldom through wealth or social prestige. Moreover, the boys earning their way, being earnest and industrious, succeed in holding their own in scholarship and even in popularity, with those in the great body of the school. Democracy is thus decidedly its own justification.

It is part of the Academy tradition that each student, in preparation for the larger freedom of the college, should have a reasonable amount of personal liberty; but care is taken to see that this does not degenerate into license. The idea is to make the transition to college seem natural, not abrupt nor startling. The average age of the students, nearly seventeen years, shows that many of them are fairly well along toward maturity. There is then no general study-hall, but the boys meet every morning at 7:45 for

the chapel exercises, and then separate, going either to the recitation halls or to their own rooms for study. The study and recitation hours extend from eight o'clock in the morning until one, from four to six in the afternoon, and from eight o'clock on, every evening. No recitations are held on Wednesday and Saturday afternoons, which are devoted to recreation. During study hours each boy is supposed to be either at recitation or in his own room or building, except when given a signed excuse by his house officer for good and sufficient reasons. These excuses are checked up at the Registrar's office, and no boy is allowed over seven unexcused absences in a single term. It is the policy of the Academy, moreover, to provide for the occupation of the boys during the free periods, such a variety of outside interests being offered, in athletics and other forms of recreation, that each student is likely to have a full day. Possibly the most distinctive feature of Phillips Academy, aside from its democracy, is this vigorous and healthful community life. Each boy is made to recognize that he is a unit in a highly developed social entity, and is encouraged to play his part in promoting its welfare. The Academy, situated as it is outside the town, is now so much a group of people in itself that there is small incentive or opportunity for seeking amusement elsewhere. A boy who goes wrong under such conditions must do so wilfully and deliberately.

This is the more true because of the recent effective extension of faculty supervision. In the autumn of 1914, excluding day scholars, all but about 50 of the students were located in houses controlled by members of the faculty, whose jurisdiction is, of course, much more complete than that of any boarding-house keeper could possibly be. The instructor in charge of each hall or dormitory is bound to maintain order in his building, and can punish misconduct by the infliction of demerits. For younger boys who come planning to remain during the full four-year course, a special dormitory, Williams Hall, has been provided, in which the restrictions, though not severe, are calculated to assure parents that their sons will be carefully watched and guided. By a progressive evolution these boys can move, in their Junior Middle year, to one of a small group of other houses where they are somewhat less bound by rules, and finally, in the Middle and Senior years, to the regular

dormitories where a larger responsibility is exacted. For purposes of arranging schedules for students a member of the faculty, called the Class Officer, is assigned to each class, his function being to frame the boy's course of study to suit his necessities and the regulations of the Academy. The student body, moreover, is divided into small groups of approximately 18 boys, each under the charge of some faculty member, who becomes for his division a sort of sponsor, keeping in close touch with the work of each boy, steering him from pitfalls, and acting, to a certain extent, *in loco parentis*. The Division Officer is expected to familiarize himself with the previous training and character of each boy under his care, to follow his progress in the Academy, morally as well as intellectually, and to become thus so much of a specialist that he will be able to recommend action whenever the student's name comes before the faculty for discussion. In a school as large as Andover it is obviously impracticable for any one teacher to acquire a thorough acquaintance with the entire student body: but the Division Officer scheme makes the problem of government comparatively a simple one. Not often will a single rule fit all cases. Each separate boy usually requires different treatment, depending upon his temperament, his ability, and his maturity. This system by which one responsible person is always possessed of detailed knowledge concerning any student in question may be considered, perhaps, the most significant and far-reaching of Dr. Stearns's innovations.

Over matters concerning the social and fraternal life of the students the supervision of the faculty is largely advisory and seldom obtrusive. Opportunities for the development of the qualities of leadership are offered in numerous fields. All teams and student organizations are managed by the boys themselves, and it is uncommon for a normal boy not to find a chance for displaying any ability, athletic, executive, or artistic, which he may have. In accordance with the theory of community life already outlined, each boy is urged to have some interest aside from that of the required classroom work, and to follow it as an avocation. The semi-weekly school newspaper, the *Phillipian*, is, like the literary monthly, the *Mirror*, published entirely by student editors. Those attracted toward public speaking are soon drawn into one of the two debating societies, Philomathean and Forum. Other pur-

poses are served by the Musical, Dramatic, and Language clubs. The Student Council, comprising representatives from the various school organizations, including the athletic teams, the debating and musical clubs, and the men of the First and Second Honor Rolls, together with other elected members, discusses and passes judgment upon matters relating primarily to the direction of purely student interests. Training in self-government and self-reliance is constantly being brought about through various student enterprises. Entirely on their own initiative the boys carry on a night school for foreigners in the near-by city of Lawrence, themselves conducting classroom teaching and contributing to support a graduate director. Their work in training ignorant but ambitious men in the essentials of good citizenship has won them high commendation. The recently erected swimming-pool, costing \$30,000, was paid for largely by money raised by students among themselves and their friends in the course of an aggressive campaign. Frequent school meetings are held in which the leaders debate important matters. A non-sectarian religious organization known as the Society of Inquiry is conducted by the boys alone. Many students show ingenuity in devising new ways of earning money, and several carry on successfully business enterprises. The Academy in many ways attains its end of changing boys into men by giving them a measure of responsibilities and duties in the community.

A carefully arranged system of athletic training is also an integral part of the Academy plan. Every boy in the school, unless physically disqualified, is obliged to take some form of exercise adapted to his strength and needs. All teams, whether of the class or of the Academy, are coached by regular members of the faculty, who find recreation in mingling with the boys in various forms of sport. The choosing of a school team is preceded by a preliminary period of interclass games, in which every candidate is given a fair chance to show his mettle. From the ability displayed in these interclass contests, the Academy squad is picked. The uniform success of Andover teams in all branches of sport is due partly to their efficient coaching, partly to the fact that every boy is so watched by the Physical Director that he must always be in good condition. Football, baseball, and track athletics are, of course, the major sports; but boys may take their choice elsewhere in cross-country running,

tennis, swimming, hockey, soccer, and lacrosse, besides the gymnasium drill in the winter. So large are the school fields that it is possible for eight football games or seven baseball games to be going on simultaneously. As far as practicable the excitement of contests with other schools is being minimized, and a healthful spirit of rivalry is aroused among the students themselves. It is possible thus to lessen the danger of newspaper notoriety for prominent athletes.

As has already been emphasized, Phillips Academy is unique among schools in its cosmopolitan atmosphere. Unlike other institutions which draw men largely from one locality or from one class, Andover is truly national in its constituency. The boy from Louisiana may room with one from California or sit beside one from Maine: and each has much to gain from what may have been a mere fortuitous association. Of the 19 men on last year's football team, four were from Massachusetts, two each from Missouri and Pennsylvania, and one each from Tennessee, Maine, Nebraska, Colorado, New York, Oregon, Minnesota, Texas, Ohio, Connecticut, and Wyoming. It is probable that no other educational institution in this country, school or college, could show such a varied representation on a single team. It is the design of the Trustees to preserve at any cost this national representation, for it is certain that this mingling of boys from one section with those from another is an education in itself. Little provincialisms disappear, local prejudices and peculiarities wear away, and a general tolerance and breadth of view is the result. It is worth adding, perhaps, that members of the faculty are drawn from no one college or section. They represent degrees from Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Sheffield, Columbia, Dartmouth, Brown, Amherst, Williams, Wesleyan, Colgate, Beloit, St. Lawrence, Wabash, Haverford, Lafayette, Clark College, and Springfield Training School; and various members have studied at the Universities of Paris, Berlin, Munich, and Marburg, and at different Oxford colleges.

Phillips Academy is mainly a place of preparation for college, and as such its curriculum has been largely determined, at least in recent years, by college-entrance requirements. Its aim being, however, to give a thorough and effective education, it prepares

for any college or university, and is not subservient to any higher institution. Its course of study is regularly four years, but properly qualified applicants are admitted for the last two years, or even for the Senior year only. It has taken a decisive stand against the vocational training now given such exaggerated emphasis, and it will remain for many years to come, and, it is to be hoped, indefinitely, a cultural school. The increasing number of candidates for admission, including many every year who have to be turned away, indicates that its position is a popular one among those who are not swept off their feet by the tendencies of the hour.

The maintenance of discipline in a school as large as Andover is naturally a somewhat perplexing problem, but one that is simplified by the fact that the authorities have resolutely refused to let it become a reformatory or a home for incurables. It is felt that the best interests of the Academy and of its students are furthered by removing summarily any boy who refuses to conform to the established standards of scholarship or conduct. The Division Officer scheme, keeping at least one member of the faculty informed concerning every student, enables decisions on these difficult matters to be reached with the minimum of friction. A system of "cuts," like that in use at most colleges, gives each boy a certain leeway in the matter of occasional absences; but repeated unexcused absences from regular work or appointments are followed ultimately by dismissal. For low scholarship or for offenses against the school rules, boys may be deprived of all excuses or put on the so-called Probation List, the latter indicating that unless decided improvement is shown at once, dismissal may be expected. Since ample warning and admonition are given in each case, failure is, in the majority of instances, due to gross carelessness or incorrigibility on the part of the student.

In acting as a stepping-stone from high school to college Phillips Academy feels that it has had, and will continue to have, a valuable mission. It is its aim to turn boys into clean, healthy, self-reliant men, prepared to cope successfully with the problems either of college or of life. The long roll of distinguished alumni, and their persistent loyalty, are evidences as to what extent this aim has been achieved.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATES IN IOWA

H. EDWIN MITCHELL

State Manual-Training Normal School, Pittsburg, Kansas

THE PROBLEM

The question of the distribution into occupations of the graduates of Iowa high schools was suggested by the investigation recently made in the state of New York by Mr. Shallies.¹ Particularly inviting for further investigation was that part of his report which showed these high-school graduates who entered the teaching profession in that state to be relatively inferior in scholarship, based on their high-school records. Another feature of the question which offered some inducement for the undertaking, was the possibility of getting information on the relation of the high schools to the colleges. A third phase of the general question and one widely discussed, particularly by business men, is the relation of the high school to the business world. The complaint is heard everywhere that pupils who have gone through our schools fail to make good in the simple clerical work of the office, store, or other commercial establishment. This study seemed to offer at least a partial answer to this criticism by finding out whether these commercial workers are truly representative.

Aside from these special features of the problem, of interest to those in special fields, there was the general question, of interest to all, of the relation of the high schools to the requirements of the state. Do the high schools of Iowa train young people for the work of the state, or do they, by failing to offer such training, compel them to go elsewhere, where competition is less sharp?

METHOD OF INVESTIGATION

In February, 1913, I sent the following letter and blank form to superintendents in Iowa towns supporting accredited high schools. (Blank is shown on p. 84.)

¹ Guy Wheeler Shallies, "The Distribution of High-School Graduates after Leaving School," *School Review*, February, 1913.

MY DEAR SIR: I am making a comparative study of high-school graduates as to what kind of college course, business, trade, or other occupation they enter. The only way to make this study is by the grades of the graduates of some recent class. I have selected the class of 1908. Will you co-operate with me in this by filling out the inclosed blank with the names of the graduates of 1908, their grades in the studies pursued, and the kind of college course, business, trade, or other occupation entered since graduation?

In states where this study has been made, information of special interest and value to the teaching profession has been disclosed.

Thanking you in advance for your co-operation in securing this information for the teaching profession in Iowa, I am

Very truly yours,

ACKLEY, IOWA
February 12, 1913

From the circular sent out, I received the high-school records of 845 high-school graduates. These graduates represent 48 high schools in as many towns or cities. The classes range in size from 4 to 83. The schools are scattered throughout the state and are therefore quite representative of the state at large.

METHODS OF COMPARING STUDENTS

First, an average was found for each of the 845 graduates. These 845 averages were then arranged in 48 groups. Thus, in the high school whose graduates make up Table I, 3 made an average grade of 80 per cent, 2 a grade of 81 per cent, 7 a grade of 82 per cent, etc. Each group making up the 48 tables was again divided, on a basis of scholarship, into three equal groups, or tertiles. Accordingly, counting from the top downward, we have in Table I, 11 graduates who made average grades above 90 per cent and one whose average is 90 per cent, composing the highest tertile division; the other graduates having the average grade 90 per cent and enough more to make 14 composing the middle tertile; and the remaining graduates of the 38 in the group, all below 83 per cent in standing, composing the lowest tertile group. In like manner each of the other tables was divided into tertiles, the divisions being indicated by the vertical lines.

After this was done, a classification was made on the basis of occupations, the tertile divisions being retained. The results of

[illegible]

this classification are shown, both numerically and graphically, in charts A to J. Thus, in Chart A, it is shown that of the 49 graduates entering agricultural pursuits, 22 came from the lowest tertiles, 22 from the middle tertiles, and only 5 from the highest tertiles. The relative number coming from each tertile is represented graphically by the vertical columns. In the same way the other charts represent the relative scholastic standing of the respective occupation groups indicated.

Table XLIX is a composite of Charts A to J, inclusive, and gives in summary the distribution in tertile by both numbers and percentages of each occupation group. In this table, the number "expected" in each tertile is the number which would be found there in case the distribution were perfectly normal. The "actual" number of each tertile is the number which really are there in this study. And the "percentages" in each case are of the total number in the occupation group which fall in that particular tertile.

In the following table showing the tertile divisions, the large numbers in the lower horizontal lines represent passing grades in each school; the smaller numbers, in the upper horizontal lines in each, represent the number of graduates in that high school receiving the average grade directly below.

TABLE I
DIVISIONS IN TERTILES OF THE 38 GRADUATES OF HIGH SCHOOL NO. I.

3	2	7	2	1	2	3	1	2	2	1	2	1	0	3	1	2	2
80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97

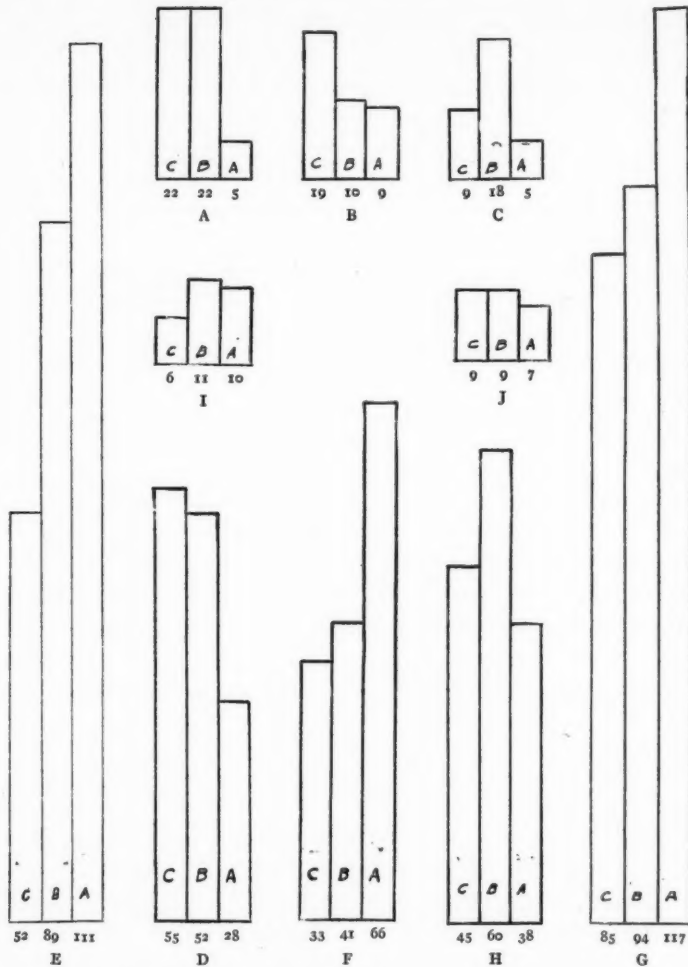
(The 47 other high schools were tabulated. They are omitted from this article.)

INTERPRETATION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

Chart E shows that nearly one-half of the 845 graduates entering the teaching profession come from the highest third of the 845, over one-third from the middle, and but slightly more than one-fifth from the lowest.

Chart F shows a very similar distribution for those going to liberal arts colleges.

From Chart D it is apparent that school people and business men agree as to the lack of ability-to-do-things of those who enter



CHARTS A-J.—A: The 49 graduates who entered upon agricultural pursuits; B: Tertile distribution of the 38 graduates who entered the professions. Six of these first attended liberal arts colleges; C: Tertile distribution of the 32 graduates who engaged in business or became business managers; D: Tertile distribution of the 135 graduates who became commercial employees; E: Tertile distribution of the 252 graduates who entered the teaching profession; F: Tertile distribution of the 140 graduates who entered colleges of liberal arts; G: Tertile distribution of the 296 graduates who continued their education in higher schools; H: Tertile distribution of the 143 graduates who married; I: Tertile distribution of the 27 graduates who became musicians; J: Tertile distribution of the 25 graduates who remained at home.

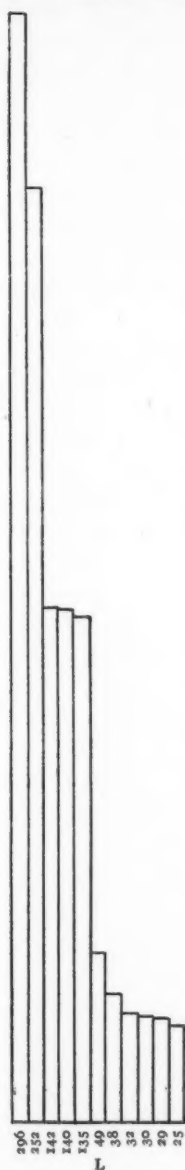


CHART L: Graphic representation of the relative number entering the different occupations. In some instances there are duplications as in the professional group, six first attended L.A. colleges.

TABLE XLIX

Summary of Charts A to J. inclusive, showing the distribution of the 845 graduates according to occupations; giving from each tertile, the "expected," or the distribution which would occur under perfectly normal conditions, the "actual" or distribution which has occurred, and the "percentages" of the whole number entering each occupation which is found in the specific tertile.

	AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS			PROFESSIONS			BUSINESS			COMMERCIAL EMPLOYEES			TEACHING			L.A. COLLEGE			ALL WHO WENT TO COLLEGE			GIRLS WHO MARRIED			MUSICIANS			HOME		
	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage	Expected	Actual	Percentage			
Highest tertile...	18	5	10	12	9	24	10	5	16	28	21	84	111	44	46	66	47	98	117	39	47	38	27	9	10	37	8	7	28	
Middle tertile...	17	22	45	14	10	26	12	18	56	45	52	84	89	35	48	41	30	100	94	32	49	60	42	9	11	39	9	9	36	
Lowest tertile...	16	22	45	12	19	30	10	9	28	45	55	84	52	21	46	33	23	98	85	29	47	45	31	9	6	24	8	9	36	

the ranks of the commercial employees. The school, too, has declared them to be of but mediocre or poor grade.

Chart A gives nearly all agricultural workers as coming from the lower grades, there being but 10 per cent, the smallest percentage of any group, coming from the highest third.

Chart B shows the professions to have been recruited from the lower third. All but six of this group entered the professions directly. Four of these six are in the highest third, and two in the lowest. These six took liberal arts training before entering upon their professional career.

With the exception of the group continuing their education, in Chart G, the other charts show quite even distributions. Chart G shows a select group, though not so pronounced as in the liberal arts.

Thus our results indicate for the teaching profession in Iowa, the reverse of what was found in New York. Iowa teachers, entering the profession through the high schools, are of the best in scholarship which the high schools have to offer.

The relation of the high schools to the liberal arts colleges is shown to be close.

With respect to the commercial workers, our results seem to justify the schools in replying to the criticism of the commercial employers by suggesting that they offer inducements sufficient to draw a better class of students into the commercial courses of the high schools; and thus attract to their services the better, or at least an average, quality of the schools' product.

With regard to the general question of the relation of the high schools to the requirements of the state, our results point to interesting conclusions. We have seen that those taking up the work of agriculture—the business of first importance to Iowa—are the lowest in scholastic standing of any occupation group. Then there are but 49 who engaged in this work; these 49 coming from 48 high schools, located in as many communities. The facts suggest the following questions: Why did not more of the high-school students of superior ability take up agricultural pursuits after graduation? Why did not the great number of boys who would logically have graduated from these high schools in the class of 1908, and who must have become farmers, finish the high-school

course? In the 48 communities, there must have been more than 49 boys who became farmers or who engaged in farm work. To what extent did these high schools succeed in training for farm work, the ones who did graduate? And, finally, why have the high schools been so slow to offer the sort of training which would have attracted their better students, which would have held those who dropped out, and which would have given some specific training for those graduates who did enter upon this work which is of first importance to the prosperity and happiness of the state? The answer to the first three is implied in the fourth and last question. The high schools have failed to make provision for those interested in agriculture. In answer to the fourth question, we must blame the colleges for failing to recognize value in subjects other than the traditional ones, the people in control for demanding that at all hazards the "road to college" be kept open, and the teachers for being such ardent supporters of the "go-to-college" idea that they lost sight of greater things. All must be blamed for catering to the benefit of the favored few who have been able to profit by the work of the high school, meanwhile ignoring the needs of the majority and, indirectly, the greater needs of the state.

However, the situation has its brighter side. Since 1908 Iowa has established a system of normal-training high schools, designed to train teachers for the rural schools, training in agriculture and domestic science being a part of the required course. Also, since this study was begun, through the activity of the Iowa State Teachers Association, a law has been passed which provides that "the teaching of elementary agriculture, domestic science, and manual training shall, after the first day of July, 1915, be required in the public schools of the state." Also, "after the date aforesaid, elementary agriculture and domestic science shall be included among the subjects required in the examination for a teacher's certificate of those applicants who are required by the provisions of this act to teach agriculture and domestic science."

These provisions, backed by state aid and supervised by the state department through a force of five inspectors, assisted by better paid and better qualified county superintendents, show clearly that Iowa is coming to a recognition of her *real* problems in education.

A PLAN FOR TESTING METHODS OF TEACHING SECONDARY MATHEMATICS

G. W. MYERS
University of Chicago

A friend of mine said the other day: "Mr. Y—— ceases to think about a question so soon as he learns the attitude of his favorite teacher on the question. His final argument in defense of a position is that Mr. Z—— thinks so and so about it."

In a gathering of teachers of secondary mathematics one man argued that the heuristic method is best in teaching mathematics because he had found it best; another asserted with equal emphasis that the method of direct exposition is the best, and for substantially the same reason. A third said that he had found a combination of the two methods better than either one alone; the heuristic for mastering the details of the subject being taught, and the expository for recapitulating its principles with a view to giving a mastery of the subject as a whole. The situation was left in this unsatisfactory status.

In all such gatherings as the one alluded to there will be found no lack of appreciation of such sentiments as the following: "In the beginning with reading, writing, spelling, etc., the statement of the teacher is accepted as authority. In mathematics, personal authority sinks so completely out of sight that the child may even correct the teacher sometimes"; and this: "Rightly taught, mathematics has for one of its chief virtues its value in assisting one to think things out for himself and so delivering him from the yoke of authority"; and finally, even this: "Mathematics is the one school subject in which opinion, tradition, and authority must subordinate themselves to reason."

Can it be that the very spirit and essence of mathematical science fail to carry over into its methods of presentation? Must the representatives of this subject, whose very genius expunges all empiricism and mere authority, acquire and defend their point of view as to its classroom methodology solely on grounds of authority and empiricism? Would it not seem that the spirit of *sufficient*

reason, which pervades all mathematical study worthy of the name, should carry over into methods of teaching and learning mathematics? It is hardly necessary to say that the vital question about the validity of a new method is not at all who believes in it, or has found it the most workable. It is such questions as these: Does it convince the reason? Is it demonstrably correct in its own right? Does it overstress certain important teaching values, and understress, or entirely or too greatly neglect other equally important values? It is not at all the question: Does my good friend believe in it? Is it not high time to formulate more objective and more convincing means of gauging the results of methods of teaching mathematics than have hitherto been devised? Is it not possible so to gather and to organize the evidences of classroom efficiency that a teacher's mind may be convinced at least to the point of a willingness to put a proposed method to test, with some promise of being able actually to measure the type and the degree of excellence, or lack of it, that belong to the method? In short, have not teachers of secondary mathematics been loitering about in the vestibule of the pedagogical edifice long enough now to be ready actually to enter it?

It is in the hope of contributing, though perhaps only a little, toward revealing the pedagogical possibilities that lie immediately before us, that the following recital of the details of a partially completed experiment is presented.

A few months ago a professional student, who was at the time a regular high-school teacher of mathematics, undertook the problem of systematically testing the *heuristic* as against the *expository* mode of teaching algebra to first-year high-school classes. His aim was to make the test as objective in character as possible. He chose for the experiment two of his first-year algebra classes that were, in his judgment, similarly circumstanced and nearly equal in ability. Confirmatory evidence of their equality of ability was furnished also by previous tests.

One class was taught by the heuristic plan as nearly as the teacher could administer it, and the other was taught entirely by the plan of direct exposition. To the first class the teacher told

nothing directly, but he questioned indirectly and worked out inductively what he wanted learned. He made it a point to have the mathematical truth come first over the lips of the learner. To the second class he told everything directly, illustrating copiously and with great care. Both at the beginning and at the close of the regular teaching period of fifty minutes he gave arithmetical drills or exercises, of exactly two minutes' duration, as a means of measuring the fatigue factor of the methods. The classes numbered twenty and twenty-three pupils respectively.

The beginning test of the first day was as follows: Each pupil began with 6 and wrote as many correct sums as he could, adding first 1, then 2, then 3, 4, 5, etc., during the two minutes. The final two-minute test the pupils began with 8, and added the natural numbers in succession as above. Records of "attempts" and "rights" were kept, that furnished the following class averages:

EXPERIMENT I

Method	Beginning	End
Expository.....	96.70 per cent	97.12 per cent
Heuristic.....	96.36 "	95.90 "

The numbers denote the class averages of the percentages of the "attempts" that were "rights."

The beginning test the second day consisted in writing, in exactly two minutes, as many as possible of the sums: $2+5$, $4+7$, $6+9$, $8+1$, $2+3$, $4+5$, etc., the first number being even, the second, odd; the next sum being the next even plus the next odd, etc. When 8 was reached the even series started over again with 2, and when 9 was reached the odd series started over with 1. The end test was the same in kind, but the pupils started with a different sum, as $4+3$, $6+5$, etc.

There were so few errors in these sums that only the *numbers of sums* set down ("attempts") were counted. When a pupil wrote down more sums in the end test than in the beginning, the number expressing the excess was given a positive sign and for deficiency of end results over beginning results a negative sign was written before the excess. These positive and negative

numbers were then added separately, and, finally the sums were subtracted, with the results:

EXPERIMENT II

Expository..... $54 - 5 = 49$

Heuristic..... $41 - 18 = 23$

On the whole, then, while the class taught by the expository plan accumulated an excess sum of 49 in the end test, the class taught heuristically accumulated a total of only 23 in excess. Accordingly, both methods seemed stimulating, but the expository was the more so.

A third test was given a few weeks later in which for the fatigue test the beginning task was to start with 8, then add 6, then 7, then again 6, and again 7, and so on, for exactly two minutes. Only the sums were to be written down by pupils. In the end two-minute task the class was to begin with 6, then add 6, then 7, then again 6, and again 7, and so on as above. The class results were scored with the following outcome:

EXPERIMENT III

Expository..... $49 - 29 = 20$

Heuristic..... $40 - 66 = -26$

From external evidence shown by past tests, the first experiment seemed to reveal less of the effect of practice than did either of the other two. Still the increase in the totals of the sums in subsequent experiments was not great enough to require allowance for it, since only differential effects were involved in the final results. The only "practice effects" shown were such as were fully accounted for by the consideration that pupils knew at once in the later experiments precisely what was expected of them.

The results of these three experiments show pretty clearly that the heuristic method is more fatiguing than the expository. In all three experiments the expository plan showed more work done in the end two-minute fatigue test than in the beginning test. Thus, the expository plan showed itself actually *stimulating* throughout. With the heuristic plan less work was accomplished by pupils in the final fatigue test than in the beginning in Experiments I and III. There were 26 fewer sums in the end period than in the beginning in Experiment III. In this same experiment the

expository put 20 more sums on record in the end than in the beginning test.

In Experiment II both methods put more sums on record in the end than in the beginning two-minute period (the expository 49 more, and the heuristic 23 more), and hence, while both methods appeared stimulating, the expository plan was the more so.

The results of the first experiment are however not sufficiently dependable. The unit of performance being very large the results are not sufficiently sensitive to reveal difference of performance clearly. Furthermore, the change of plan to the second experiment had not come sufficiently well under control to enable it to show the outcome accurately. It is believed, however, that the results of Experiment III are more than fairly satisfactory. The conclusion seems to be, so far as these meager data warrant a conclusion, that the heuristic method is more exhausting of the energy of pupils than the expository. So much so that it may even be concluded that the heuristic is positively exhausting, while the expository is positively stimulating. Under the heuristic plan the pupil does most of the work, and it naturally makes heavy drafts on his energy.

But is the gain worth the cost? Is the benefit to the pupil commensurate in some sense to the greater expenditure of energy?

The experimenter planned very careful tests covering the work gone over each fortnight while an experiment was in progress. The papers were graded with particular care according to his customary plan, and the class averages for the three experiments were as given here:

Method	1st Experiment	2d Experiment	3d Experiment
Expository.....	88.6 per cent	93.2 per cent	91.6 per cent
Heuristic.....	91.8 "	95.6 "	98.7 "

Clearly, then, the class taught by the heuristic method showed a stronger and a more enduring grasp of the work gone over. It held a 3 to 7 per cent higher average than the class taught by the expository plan throughout the fortnightly tests. If these results could be regarded as final, the case for the heuristic method would seem pretty strong. The results, however, need confirmation or

refutation, and any teacher in the actual progress of his work in first-year algebra would perform a service of real value by testing these conclusions more thoroughly. Evidently, the character of the class work has not been marred by these experiments, for the class averages show a general rise throughout the experiments.

This article is making no statement that the foregoing conclusions are final. It merely hopes to suggest an experiment that is capable of refinement into a practicable means of testing methods of teaching through their results. The case here looks decidedly strong for the heuristic plan for first-year algebra. The test has the merit of being highly objective. Only an accumulation of evidence such as the foregoing can however settle the question of general superiority of one of these plans over the other. Obviously, it is well worth while to ascertain from actual classroom results just what particular points of superiority the heuristic, or expository, or any other special method has for mathematical teaching, as well as to determine what sort of combination of special procedures will properly provide for training the young mathematician to work both with his fellows and independently. Perhaps teachers may yet devise a plan involving a limited amount of stimulating, considerable evaluating of the results of the stimuli, and a great deal of inspiringly independent thinking on the part of pupils. The foregoing results seem to enable us to glimpse some such ultimate possibility.

Is it too sanguine a hope that some high-school teacher who may read this paper may be prompted to try out thus objectively the particular relative merits of the foregoing and other much-talked-of methods of teaching the mathematical subjects? By the gradual accretion of pertinent experiences and experiments some degree of definiteness as to the characteristic values of special methods may be attained, and in the writer's opinion, even such definiteness is eminently desirable in high-school mathematics.

The testing plan itself, be it noted, has some merits that seem worthy of attention. Everyone knows that algebra pupils are in continual need of arithmetical reviews, and practice. The two-minute test periods furnish an opportunity systematically to supply the needed work without robbing the regular work of its scanty time allotment. Anything on which mechanical drill is felt to

be needed may well be selected for these two brief testing periods. Principles of algebra itself, that have been mastered and now need merely to be drilled upon, may very well be called into requisition here. The aim is to get material for these fatigue-testing periods that requires close concentration for a brief space of time. It is concentrated attention that fatigues, and it is fatigue that we wish to measure.

The fortnightly testing of the work gone over also furnishes the necessary testing of the degree of control of the subject-matter taught, without material disturbance of the regular classroom procedure. Possible fatigue and strength of grasp must both be measured before the worth of a method can be known, and the testing plan seems to comprise these two essential factors fairly well.

There is also the added benefit to the teaching that comes from planning definitely for a specified result, and then carrying the plan forward from day to day, and checking up regularly as the work advances. Better teaching will be done, more interest will be developed, greater satisfaction will be felt that something definite is being accomplished, and the measured results will give tone, zest, and guidance to the regular work as it progresses.

It would perhaps be too much to hope for a thousand, or even a hundred, school tests such as the one sketched above. Such a body of data would however furnish a means of putting the question of the relative merits of teaching methods in mathematics on a more rational and objective basis.

It does not seem too much, however, to request that teachers of high-school mathematics who are well enough equipped professionally to be able to vary their classroom routine, undertake to test the relative merits of two or three of their favorite methods, or to supplement the foregoing tests on the two methods here involved, and to make their results available to the profession through some of the standard school journals. If the scheme described above does not seem the best, it may at least serve to remind the reader of a better one and to stimulate him to apply his own scheme. In behalf of the much-needed service of making mathematical classroom practice more objective, and hence more truly professional, the busiest teacher can afford to contribute of his professional effort and skill.

ONE CAUSE OF POOR RESULTS IN MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

WILLIAM R. PRICE

State Inspector of Modern Languages, New York State Education Department

At the twenty-fifth annual convention of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, held at Columbia University in December of 1911, Professor Julius Sachs gave a little anthology of errors made by pupils in translating from German into English. From these errors he drew the conclusion that a false standard of modern-language teaching had been set for the secondary schools by the colleges through their entrance examinations and that the attacks of all reformers ought to be made in that direction. He had nothing to say about poor teachers and poor teaching.

Now, although I admire Professor Sachs, I do not agree with him. Nor do I agree with those who contend that poor results are due chiefly to lack of pedagogical training, an opinion voiced in the 1912 proceedings of the same association by Dean Russell and combated by Principal Sullivan. The latter speaker said: "I think there are more teachers who make a poor showing at teaching because of lack of scholarship than there are who make a poor showing from lack of pedagogical training."

In an article in the *Educational Review*, October, 1912, I gave two causes for the poor results in modern-language teaching in our schools: the scholastic (and pedagogic) preparation of the teachers on the one hand, and the character of our pupils on the other. I shall not enlarge here upon what I said there about the average American pupil and the general character of American secondary education, with its emphasis on anything and everything except on the mastery of the subjects studied. The point that concerns me here is that this secondary instruction, continued along the same lines in college, throws back into the schools teachers of French and German who, in general, are lacking in the first requisite for good teaching, namely, adequate knowledge of subject-matter.

The president of a large state organization of modern-language teachers was heartily applauded when he denounced criticism of the teachers and lauded the "direct method" as a panacea for modern-language ills. He gave the impression that the "direct method" was like a new dress; anybody can wear it, with or without alterations. If it doesn't fit, all one has to do is to take it to one of the learned methodologists in some summer school and have it altered.

What do the teachers of French and German actually know about the language they teach? If, after studying French or German for three or four years in high school and for three or four years in college, the teachers show a lamentable ignorance of these languages, what can we expect of our high-school pupils? And if the teachers cannot, in the main, write a page of German without making heinous errors, what can we expect of them in the way of speaking the language? And what can we expect of our pupils?

Let us see what the evidence shows.

Teachers who wished credit for oral work in modern languages were required to fill out the following application:

APPLICATION FOR APPROVAL OF ORAL WORK IN MODERN LANGUAGES

Name of teacher.....

Language.....course (II, III, or IV)

The teacher for whom application is made should answer the following questions:

How long have you studied this language.....

and in what schools.....

.....

Have you studied abroad.....

Do you speak the language readily.....

Do you use the language taught as the usual medium of communication in class.....

Do you require the pupils to use the language taught as the usual medium of communication in class.....

Application made by.....

Principal of.....County

Date.....1912

Practically all the teachers answered in the affirmative the last three questions, thus showing what a high opinion they had of their

own accomplishment. As I was unable to see all the teachers who thought themselves qualified to teach a modified form of the "direct method," I invited about a hundred of them to meet me at stated times and places, or, failing that, to write, in the foreign language, a letter to the State Department, giving at some length an account of their preparation and of their work in the classroom. About half of this number chose the latter alternative. There is hardly a sentence in any of these letters that is free from error. Many of them are wholly un-German or un-French. Space forbids that I should give them in full, but I have selected ten of the most representative, from which I have made a little anthology to put over against the one made by Professor Sachs.

Here is the *corpus delicti*:

(1) Teacher's preparation: three years in high school, four years in college, with German as major subject.

"Ich habe ihnen viele Übung darauf gegeben grammatische Formen und Grundsätze in originellen Sätzen zu brauchen. . . . Wenn es einige Fragen über mein Werk sind, welche ich nicht erklärt habe, so werde ich mich freuen irgend einer Frage darüber zu antworten."

(2) "Ihrer Brief zu unsrem Herr Principal ist erhalten. Meine deutsche Klasse wünscht dass Sie würden ihnen Kredit für mündlichen Deutsch geben. Ein der Knaben hat Ihnen einen Brief geschrieben und ich werde ihn schicken. Er hat unsres Werk wohl erklärt. Wir haben in der Klasse die Geschichte gelesen, die Grammatik studiert, und die Gedichte gelernt. Wir haben mit einander darüber geredet. Nicht viel Englisch ist in der Klasse gebraucht.

Ich habe Deutsch mit einem privaten Lehrer aber nicht lang in der Schule gelernt. Es ist mein erstes Jahr Deutsch zu lehren. Mein Lehrer ist nicht hier oder er würde sagen dass ich kann es gut sprechen. Bitte geben Sie den Schülern den Kredit wenn Sie können.

Ihre ergebenst, _____"

(3) Teacher's preparation: three years in high school, four years in college.

"Voici une contoír de l'ouvrage" [she means "The following is an account of the work done in class"]. . . . "Les élèves disent le conte en française comme je le dis; donc chaque élève dit le conte comme un caractère du cont. . . . Je les dis un conte aussi [i.e., to the second-year class] et donc ils le disent. . . . Ils disent quoi ils voient dans la rue [third-year pupils]. . . . Les élèves ont écrit les cours—positions difficiles [this is for fourth-year pupils, and she seems to mean that her pupils have had rather difficult compositions to write]. . . . Nous discutons les affaires des temps. En toutes mes classes le temps se divise en trois parts. Le premier part de la classe nous

études le grammaire, ou nous écrivons les compositions; le second part nous traduisons, le troisième part nous parlons en française."

(4) Teacher's preparation: four years in college; has taught eleven years.

"Ihr Brief in Betreff des Beifalls der mündlichen Arbeit in der deutschen Sprache in unserer Schule ist empfangen worden. Ich habe erwählt den Brief Ihnen zu schreiben da ich sehr gut nach B—— nicht gehen kann. . . . Ich erinnere . . . und deshalb spricht das Deutsch sehr gut. . . . Dann kam ich in die Hochschule zu W—— als ein deutscher Lehrer . . . aus einigem deutschen Textbuch lese ich laut und dann frage ich nach den Dingen wovon das Text spricht . . . über die Meinungen auf Deutsch von den Wörtern. . . . Im Winter, bildeten wir eine deutsche Gesellschaft welche eine Woche um die andere traf. . . . Ich denke dass es sicher sein würde wenn Sie uns den Beifall geben würde."

(5) Teacher's preparation: high school and normal school, five years; also private instruction; is of German-American parentage.

"Da es mir sehr ungelegen sein wird, den Inspektor zu begegnen, will ich Ihnen einen Brief schreiben. Ich habe Deutsch als ein Kind mit meiner Grossmutter gesprochen und ich habe es drei Jahre im Gymnasium und zwei im Lehrerseminar studiert [i.e., American high school and American normal school]. . . . Beim ersten Anblick haben meine Schüler Gegenstände vom Balls Exerzierenbuch übersetzt. . . . Es kommt mir vor als ob es möglich wäre dass ich die Probe aushalte" [she means that she thinks that she has shown sufficient knowledge of German to satisfy any fair-minded examiner].

(6) Teacher's preparation: three years in high school, four years in college, with German as major subject.

"Ich möchte sagen dass ich von ganzer deutschen Abstammung bin und dass ich nichts als Deutsch bis sechs Jahre alt sprach. . . . Ich habe nicht vorher gelehrt. Dieses Jahr versuchte ich die direkte Methode in Übung zu bringen. Wir haben teils auf deutsch gesprochen, auch Sprichwörter und gemeine Phrasen gelernt."

(7) Teacher's preparation: high school and college, five years.

"Ihr Brief über den Credit in den neuen Sprachen erhielt richtig und ich wünsche um Credit in Deutsch zu applicieren. Ich wünsche zu sagen dass ich eine Graduirte aus —— Colleginne [she means a certain female college], Klasse 1910, bin und brachte vier Jahre auf Deutsch zu. . . . Das Werk dieses Jahres hat die Grammatik, Übersetzung, das Gespräch und mündliches Lesen [sic!] und Dictiren enthalten. . . . Trauend dass dieser Brief Ihren günstigen Beifall treten werde bleibe ich. . . ."

(8) Teacher's preparation: four years in high school, four in college, German as major subject.

"Den grosste Teil. . . . Zuweilen übergeben wir zehn Minuten zur Besprechung des Alltäglichen. . . . Öfters müssen meine Studenten Aufsätze auf gewisse ausgegebene Gegenstände schreiben. . . . Das Übersetzen von

Englisch auf Deutsch ersteht aus zusammenhängende Sätze. . . . Die Studenten werden zu verstehen gegeben das alles auf Deutsch sein muss."

(9) Teacher's preparation: four years high school, four years in college, with German as major subject; is of German-American parentage.

"Weil es für mich unmöglich sein wird, Doktor Price zu begegnen, schreibe ich diesen Brief dass ich die Billigung des mündlichen Werkes in dieser Schule bekomme. . . . Ohne Zweifel sind Sie wohlbekannt mit den Lehrarten der deutschen Sprache auf der Universität. Die Unterhaltung betreffende Lehrart wird in den allen Lehrgänge gebraucht. . . . Ich verfolgte mehreren Lehrgängen die mit dem schriftlichen Aufsatz behandelten. Ein anderer Lehrgang wurde der Lehrart der deutschen Sprache ganz ergeben. Mit der Hoffnung dass mein Brief günstige Betrachtung empfangen, bin ich

Aufrichtig *der* Ihre,

Bessie ———"

(10) Teacher's preparation: given by the candidate as eleven years.

"Während ich in der Universität war, war Deutsch mein grösstest Subject. . . . Die Übersetzung in Deutsch . . . sie antworten die Fragen in Deutsch. . . . Um das Interesse meiner Studenten grösser zu machen, habe ich für sie Briefwechsel mit Schülern in Schulen in Deutschland bekommen. . . . So bitte ich dass Kredit für mündliches Werk zu meinen Klassen gegeben werde."

This list might be continued indefinitely, not only from letters that I have in my possession, but from notes taken by me in the classrooms, from oral examinations of teachers, from teachers' ratings in the written examinations of their pupils. All my experience with teachers of modern languages in the state of New York (not considering the teachers who are native Germans or Frenchmen, nor those American-born teachers who have studied abroad) convinces me that the chief cause of poor results in modern-language teaching in our secondary schools is due to the fact that the teachers do not know the language they attempt to teach.

HOW CAN PHYSICAL TRAINING BE MADE OF GREATEST VALUE TO THE HIGH-SCHOOL BOY?

W. L. CHILDS

Director of Physical Training, New Trier Township High School, Kenilworth, Ill.

The system of physical training which will be of greatest value to the high-school boy will, I believe, be arranged on a physiologically correct basis, with classes of long periods meeting daily, or at least on alternate days. The pupils will be required to wear a special uniform, suited to the kind of work they are to do. Their exercise will be followed by a bath and a good rub with a towel. The work will be carried on, whenever practical, in the open air and sunshine. It may be prefaced by a very short setting-up drill for disciplinary effect, and for teaching the pupil what the correct carriage of the body should be. Dancing steps should be taught as a part of this drill, which should be followed by coaching and competition, during fine weather, in all of our best athletic sports. During inclement weather the work should be continued in the gymnasium; basketball, indoor baseball, tumbling, boxing, wrestling, and exercises on all the different pieces of apparatus taking the place of the outdoor sports. Special emphasis will be put on sports and exercises which can be carried on during the entire life-time. In the gymnasium work the pupils will be classified according to their ability, not according to their year in school, and their interest held by progressive, graded work.

These are the lines along which we are working at New Trier High School. Our classes meet three times a week, doing gymnastic and athletic work on two days and swimming on the third. The work is required of all Freshmen and Sophomores. The classes meet immediately after school. They continue for forty-five minutes, after which the boys are allowed a short swim, or they may stay longer, play games, and perform on the apparatus. All boys are required to wear an athletic suit, adapted to various sports and weather conditions. The boys are first assembled for roll-call and a very short period of setting-up exercises. It is then necessary to divide the large classes into small groups for their athletic or gymnastic

coaching or games. To do this satisfactorily a well-organized leaders' system is necessary. The football men are used to coach football, the track men to coach track events, baseball men to coach baseball, and so on through the different sports. A special gymnastic leaders' squad takes care of the indoor work. Each small group is assigned to some particular piece of apparatus or athletic event. There is a well-known order of progression from one piece of apparatus to the next. After a short period of work a whistle is blown and all the groups move ahead to the next piece of apparatus. This general system is followed in all the athletic sports, as well as on the gymnastic apparatus. In football, for example, one squad will be working on the tackling machine, another will be diving into sacks of sawdust, learning how to put a man out of play, a third working on the charging machine, a fourth learning how to fall on the ball, a fifth how to stiff-arm, a sixth running signal plays, another learning the spiral pass, and still others learning to punt, to drop and place kick, and to elude tacklers. When the whistle blows the squad working on the dummy moves over to the sawdust sacks, while the squad working on the sacks goes to the charging machine, and so on. After the class is over we almost invariably have a "just-for-fun" game of football, which the boys themselves arrange and officiate.

A handicap class game series is co-ordinated with the physical training classes in such a manner that every boy, after having had two weeks of coaching, has an opportunity to make use of this coaching in actual competition. These inter-class games between Freshmen, Sophomores, Juniors, and Seniors are played after the close of the gymnasium classes, the series in each sport continuing during the two weeks which follow the two weeks of coaching in a given sport. These class series are entirely in the hands of student committees, although it would be much better if there were an instructor who could give his afternoons to this work. This arrangement gives four weeks to each sport, two weeks of coaching and two weeks of actual competition.

The following is a brief summary of the year's work. During the first two weeks of school the class time is spent in giving physical examinations, and in teaching simple marching tactics. An inter-class tennis series is played at this time. The first two weeks of

October are given to football coaching, and the classes are followed with match games in the inter-class baseball series. Track coaching claims the attention of the class for the following two weeks, while the inter-class football series gives them a chance to put into practical use the football taught them during the preceding two weeks. The next fortnight is spent in basket-ball coaching and inter-class track meets, and is followed by two weeks of coaching in soccer football and competition in basket-ball. During the first two weeks of December the boys are coached in wrestling and an inter-class soccer series is played. After the Christmas holidays we are, for practically three months, forced to take our exercise indoors. We hope to be able, before long, to use our athletic field for a skating rink, and perhaps teach plain and fancy skating as a part of the regular work. (It seems a pity that there are so few outdoor, winter sports.) For a period of three months, beginning with the opening of school after the Christmas holidays, the class period is spent chiefly in doing gymnastic work, although a game and some work on the running track form a part of every day's order. Instruction is given on all the usual pieces of heavy apparatus but especial attention is paid to tumbling and athletic dancing. An inter-class wrestling series, in several different weights, is held during the first two weeks of this period, an indoor baseball series during the following two weeks, inter-class swimming meets during the first two weeks of February, inter-class gymnastic meets the last two weeks of February, and the indoor season closes with a big gymnastic exhibition, just before the Easter holidays. The entire month of April is given to track coaching, with inter-class competitions in soccer football during the first two weeks and track meets the last two weeks. The month of May is spent in coaching baseball and in playing a long inter-class series of baseball games. An inter-class tennis tournament is held during the final two weeks of school.

In addition to these intra-school athletics we have representative school teams in football, soccer football, swimming, water soccer, light- and heavy-weight basket-ball, baseball, track athletics, golf, and tennis. The majority of the boys on these team squads are Juniors and Seniors. We are trying to get every boy interested and doing something worth while along athletic lines.

DISCUSSION

To the Editor of the "School Review":

SIR: In the *School Review* of October, 1913, appears an article on the "Relative Efficiency of Public and Private Secondary Institutions" which prompts me to a few kindly criticisms.

An analysis of college marks shows a much larger percentage of honor pupils coming from public high schools than from private institutions. Mr. Potter attempts to solve the problem of the relative efficiency of these two classes of schools by a study of the marks of students in the University of Chicago. The arrangement and graphical elucidation of the statistics at his disposal are admirable; unfortunately, as is so often the case, the statistics do not point at all conclusively to the conclusions stated. In this particular paper, it is peculiar that, after the author's statement that "from the foregoing charts and tables the conclusion is evident that as an agency preparing for college the high school is far superior to the academy," a second set of statistics reveals the strongest kind of an argument against the conclusions reached.

To be brief, the first set of statistics shows that the normal distribution curve in the case of academy pupils is "skewed" toward the lower marks, with the median student falling within four of C; in the case of high-school students it is "skewed" toward the higher marks, the median here being "within 20" (!) of being B.

The second set of statistics, however, shows that the distribution of high-school pupils is that of a "selected group" comprising but 5.57 per cent of the total pupils registered in that type of school; in the case of the academy pupils it is again a "selected group" comprising 16.33 per cent of those enrolled in that type of school.

One must beware of comparing distribution curves of "selected groups," especially of those selected by different agencies. If such comparison be made, the nature of the "selected group" must first be carefully examined, and then if the two curves still appear comparable, due allowance must always be made for the selective factors. Such a comparison is a delicate matter, and is very seldom fruitful of information which can frankly be accepted as valuable. Mr. Potter fails to notice the "selected" character of the two groups whose distribution he has plotted; and valid statistical information which might make allowance for selection possible is of such a nature that we cannot even attempt to obtain it.

A few words, I think, will suffice to show that the author of the article is not dealing with "chance selection," and to indicate what the different causes are which govern selection in one group as compared with the other.

It will be granted that the group from high schools is selected more by natural fitness for college work than is the group from private schools. Mr. Potter recognizes the fact that the function of the high school is not college preparation; while his figures show that this is the avowed purpose of at least a large number of private schools. The high school aims to divert the pupil naturally unfitted for college from that goal to another; the private school attempts to prepare its pupils for college regardless of their fitness.

Experience in two excellent private schools, Milton Academy, Massachusetts, and the Horace Mann High School, of Teachers College, New York, has taught me that the parent demands that his son (or daughter) be prepared for college, regardless of the latter's "parts" or interests; and if the school cannot itself give all the necessary aid, funds for private "coaching" are forthcoming. Many pupils, after failing in public schools, reach college through the more individual attention possible in private institutions. The public schools are thus relieved of some who later tend to "skew" the normal distribution curve of private-school pupils toward a lower median in college.

Again, for obvious reasons college scholarships with stipends act as more cogent incentives to the majority of pupils from public schools than to those from private schools; and, in addition, the average student from the private school has usually many interests apart from his studies, interests which are beyond the financial reach of the public-school student.

A longer exposition seems hardly necessary. So familiar are these facts to us all that mere mention of them would suffice.

In the case of the Public Latin School of Boston, the record of its graduates at Harvard College is one to be proud of indeed. As a school whose peculiar function, as compared with that of the other city high schools, is college preparation, it also eliminates many pupils, some of whom might in private institutions finally succeed in "getting into college." Would it be fair to compare the college marks of its graduates with the marks of graduates of institutions which have received its failures? Is the work of the private school thereby declared inferior?

Yours sincerely,

ALBERT F. REED

PUBLIC LATIN SCHOOL
BOSTON, MASS.

THE SOCIETY OF COLLEGE TEACHERS OF EDUCATION

The society will meet with the Department of Superintendence in Richmond on Tuesday, February 24. There will be two sessions and the usual luncheon.

9:00 A.M.

"The Rating, Placing, and Promotion of Teachers." Introduction—Frank E. Thompson, University of Colorado, *Chairman*.

"The Rating of Prospective Teachers." William H. Kilpatrick, Columbia University.

"The Rating of Teachers in Service." Lotus D. Coffman, University of Illinois.

"The Placing of New Teachers." A. S. Whitney, University of Michigan.

"A Plan for Co-operation between States or Sections for the Placing and Promotion of Teachers." Edward C. Elliott, University of Wisconsin; W. S. Sutton, University of Texas.

"The Advantages of a State Teachers' Agency." George F. James, University of Minnesota.

"Plans for the Betterment of Conditions." The Committee.

12:30 P.M.

Luncheon.

2:30 P.M.

Business Meeting.

"The Significance of City School Surveys for Departments of Education in Colleges and Universities." Paul H. Hanus, Harvard University.

"The Significance of State Educational Surveys for Departments of Education in Colleges and Universities." M. B. Hillegas, Columbia University.

"Report of the Committee in Rating of Normal Schools in Relation to Departments of Education in Colleges and Universities." W. A. Jessup, Iowa State University, *Chairman*.

Members will be notified of the final arrangements for the luncheon and the places of meeting, later. The *Yearbook* will be out about February 5.

CONSTITUTION

PREAMBLE

In order to promote the teaching of education in the colleges and universities of the country, we, the undersigned, do hereby adopt the following:

ARTICLE I. NAME

This association shall be styled The Society of College Teachers of Education.

ARTICLE II. PURPOSE

It shall be the general purpose of this society to improve the work of the departments of education in the colleges and universities of the country. To this end it shall (1) Ascertain in as great detail as possible what is actually being done from time to time in the various colleges and universities, and this information shall be disseminated among its members in the most effective manner. (2) It shall encourage wise experimentation in developing new courses in education in colleges and universities. (3) It shall, through committees or otherwise, attempt to determine the relative value for college and university students, both graduate and undergraduate, of different courses in education. (4) It shall study the relationship of the department of education to other departments in colleges and universities, to the end that this relationship may be most harmonious and helpful. (5) It shall discuss current educational theory so far as this is germane to the work of the members of the association.

ARTICLE III. MEMBERSHIP

Section 1. All teachers of educational subjects in bona fide colleges and universities shall be eligible to membership in this society.

Section 2. All those persons who were in attendance upon the first meeting in Chicago, and who shall sign this constitution and pay the membership fee, shall be regarded as charter members. All other members shall be elected by the executive committee.

Section 3. Members shall be elected by the executive committee, and shall pay annual dues of two dollars. Other funds necessary for the maintenance of the society shall be raised by assessments levied on the members of the society. (Amendment of February 25, 1903.)

ARTICLE IV. OFFICERS

Section 1. The affairs of the society shall be placed in the hands of an executive committee of five members, including the president and secretary. The president shall preside at the meetings of the society, and the secretary shall assume all the duties usually devolving upon such an officer. In addition, he shall take charge of the funds of the association and expend them under the direction of the executive committee. The president and the secretary shall be elected annually by the members of the society.

Section 2. Of the members of the executive committee one shall be elected each year by the members of the society, and shall hold office for three years.

ARTICLE V. MEETINGS

There shall be one meeting of the society each year, to be held at the same time and place as the meeting of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association until otherwise determined by vote of the society. The executive committee shall have charge of all details in arranging for each meeting.

ARTICLE VI. AMENDMENTS

Amendments may be made to this constitution by a two-thirds vote of the members of the society at a meeting subsequent to that at which the amendment has been proposed in writing.

EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, 1913-14

PROFESSOR GEORGE M. FORBES	<i>President</i>
University of Rochester	
PROFESSOR CARTER ALEXANDER	<i>Secretary-Treasurer</i>
George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.	
PROFESSOR PAUL HANUS	PROFESSOR PAUL MONROE
Harvard University	Columbia University
PROFESSOR F. E. THOMPSON	
University of Colorado	

MEMBERSHIP LIST, JANUARY 10, 1914

ADAMS, ELIZABETH K.	Professor of Education, Smith College, Northampton, Mass.
ALEXANDER, CARTER	Professor of School Administration, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.
ANDERSON, LEWIS F.	Assistant Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
AYER, FRED C.	Head of Department of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Ore.
BAGLEY, W. C.	Director of School of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
BALDWIN, BIRD T.	Professor of Psychology and Education, Swarthmore College, Swarthmore, Pa.
BALLIET, THOMAS M.	Dean of the School of Pedagogy, New York University, New York City.
BARR, W. F.	Director of the School of Education, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.
BELL, J. CARLETON	Chairman of School of Art of Teaching, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
BENNETT, H. E.	Professor of Philosophy and Education, College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, Va.

BERRY, CHARLES SCOTT

Assistant Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

BETTS, GEORGE H.

Professor of Psychology, Cornell College, Mt. Vernon, Iowa.

BINGHAM, W. VAN DYKE

Assistant Professor of Psychology and Education, Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H.

BLACK, WILLIAM W.

Dean and Professor of Education, School of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

BOBBITT, J. F.

Instructor in School Administration, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

BOLTON, F. E.

Dean of School of Education, State University of Washington, Seattle, Wash.

BOYD, W. W.

Dean and Professor of School Administration, College of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

BREED, FREDERICK S.

Assistant Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

BRISTOL, GEORGE P.

Director of School of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.

BUCHNER, EDWARD FRANKLIN

Professor of Education and Philosophy, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md.

BURNHAM, W. H.

Professor of Pedagogy and School Hygiene, Clark University, Worcester, Mass.

BURRIS, WILLIAM P.

Dean of the College for Teachers, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

BUTLER, NATHANIEL

Professor of Education and Director of Co-operation with Secondary Schools, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

BUTTERWORTH, JULIAN E.

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.

CHAMBERS, WILL GRANT

Dean of School of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

CHARTERS, W. W.

Dean and Professor of Theory and Practice of Teaching, School of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.

CHASE, H. W.

Professor of the Philosophy of Education, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.

CLARK, HARRY A.

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.

CLAXTON, P. P.

United States Commissioner of Education, Bureau of Education, Washington, D.C.

COFFMAN, LOTUS D.

Professor of Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

COLEMAN, N. T. J.

Associate Professor of Education, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.

- COURSAULT, JESSE H.**
Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
- CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P.**
Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford, Cal.
- DAVIDSON, PERCY E.**
Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford, Cal.
- DAVIS, CALVIN O.**
Junior Professor of Education, Inspector of High Schools, and Vice-Chairman of the Appointment Committee, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.
- DEAHL, JASPER N.**
Professor of Education, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W.Va.
- DEARBORN, W. F.**
Assistant Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
- DEGARMO, CHARLES**
Professor of the Science and Art of Education, Cornell University, Ithaca, N.Y.
- DEWEY, JOHN**
Professor of Philosophy, Columbia University, New York City.
- DORCAS, H. C.**
Professor of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.
- DOSTER, JAMES J.**
Dean of School of Education, University of Alabama, University, Ala.
- DUGGAN, STEPHEN P.**
Professor of Education, College of the City of New York, New York City.
- DUTTON, S. T.**
Professor of School Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- EBY, FREDERICK**
Professor of History of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
- ELLIFF, J. D.**
Professor of High-School Administration and High-School Visitor, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
- ELLIOTT, EDWARD C.**
Director of the Course for the Training of Teachers, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
- ELLIS, A. CASWELL**
Professor of the Philosophy of Education, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.
- ELLIS, CHARLES CALVERT**
Professor of Pedagogy and Philosophy, Juniata College, Huntingdon, Pa.
- FANT, ANNA L.**
Professor of Education, Mississippi Industrial College, Columbus, Miss.
- FARRINGTON, FREDERIC E.**
Associate Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- FISK, HERBERT F.**
Professor of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.
- FORBES, GEORGE M.**
Professor of Philosophy and Pedagogy, Rochester University, Rochester, N.Y.

FORDYCE, CHARLES

Dean of Teachers College and Professor of Educational Theory and Practice,
University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

FOSTER, H. H.

Professor of Philosophy and Education, Ottawa University, Ottawa, Kan.

FOSTER, WILLIAM T.

President Reed College, Portland, Ore.

FREEMAN, FRANK N.

Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Chicago, Chicago,
Ill.

GAMBRILL, BESSIE LEE

Professor of Philosophy and Education, Alfred University, Alfred, N.Y.

GARD, W. L.

Professor of History and Principles of Education, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

GOKE, WILLARD C.

Assistant Professor of Psychology, College of Education, University of Chicago,
Chicago, Ill.

GRAVES, FRANK P.

Professor of the History of Education, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia,
Pa.

HALL, JOHN W.

Professor of Elementary Education, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

HANUS, PAUL HENRY

Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

HARTSON, LOUIS D.

Assistant Professor of Psychology and Education, Grinnell College, Grinnell, Ia.

HECK, W. H.

Professor of Education, University of Virginia, University, Va.

HECKMAN, SAMUEL B.

Instructor in Education, College of the City of New York, New York City.

HENDERSON, ERNEST N.

Professor of Education, Adelphi College, Brooklyn, N.Y.

HENMON, V. A. C.

Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

HILL, ALBERT ROSS

President and Professor of Educational Psychology, University of Missouri,
Columbia, Mo.

HILLEGAS, M. B.

Assistant Professor of Elementary Education, Columbia University, New York
City.

HITCHCOCK, CLARA M.

Professor of Education and Philosophy, Lake Erie College, Painesville, Ohio.

HOLLISTER, HORACE A.

High School Visitor, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

HOLMES, HENRY W.

Assistant Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.

HORNE, HERMAN HARRELL

Professor of the History of Education and of the History of Philosophy, New York
University, New York City.

HUGHES, PERCY

Professor of Philosophy and Education, Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa.

INGLIS, ALEXANDER J.

Professor of Education, Rutgers College, New Brunswick, N.J.

JACKSON, GEORGE L.

Assistant Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

JACOBS, WALTER BALLÖU

Professor of Education, Brown University, Providence, R.I.

JAMES, GEORGE F.

Dean, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

JESSUP, W. A.

Director of School of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

JOHNSTON, CHARLES H.

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.

JONES, A. J.

Professor of Education, University of Maine, Orono, Me.

JONES, ELMER E.

Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.

JOSSELYN, H. W.

Assistant Professor of Education, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

JUDD, CHARLES HUBBARD

Director of the School of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

KENNEDY, JOSEPH

Dean of the School of Education, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, N.D.

KIERAN, JAMES M.

Professor of Education, Normal College, 68th St. and Park Avenue, New York City.

KILPATRICK, WILLIAM H.

Assistant Professor of History of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

KING, IRVING

Assistant Professor of Education, University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

KLAPPER, PAUL

Instructor in Education, College of the City of New York, New York City.

LOUGH, JAMES E.

Professor of Educational Psychology and Methods, New York University, New York City.

LUCKEY, GEORGE W. A.

Head Professor of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Neb.

MACLEAR, MARTHA

Assistant Professor of Education, Howard University, Washington, D.C.

MACVANNEL, J. A.

Professor of Philosophy of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

MC CONAUGHY, JAMES L.

Professor of Education, Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Me.

McFARLAND, RAYMOND

Professor of Secondary Education, Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vt.

- McKEAG, ANNA J.**
Professor of Education and President of Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pa.
- MERIAM, JUNIUS L.**
Professor of School Supervision, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
- MILLER, E. A.**
Professor of Education, Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.
- MONROE, PAUL**
Professor of the History of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- MOORE, ERNEST CARROLL**
Professor of Education, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
- MOORE, L. B.**
Dean of Teachers College, Howard University, Washington, D.C.
- NICHOLS, CLAUDE A.**
Professor of Education, Southwestern University, Georgetown, Tex.
- NORSWORTHY, NAOMI**
Associate Professor of Educational Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.
- NORTON, ARTHUR O.**
Professor of Education, Wellesley College, Wellesley, Mass.
- OLIN, A. S.**
Professor of Education, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.
- OMWAKE, G. L.**
President and Professor of Education, Ursinus College, Collegeville, Pa.
- O'SHEA, M. V.**
Professor and Chairman of the Department of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
- PAKENHAM, WILLIAM**
Professor of History of Education, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada.
- PARKER, SAMUEL CHESTER**
Professor of Education and Dean of the College of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
- PAYNE, BRUCE R.**
President, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.
- RALL, EDWARD E.**
Professor of Education, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.
- RHOADS, MCHENRY**
Professor of Secondary Education, State University, Lexington, Ky.
- RHOTON, A. L.**
Professor of Education, Georgetown College, Georgetown, Ky.
- ROBERTS, GEORGE L.**
Professor of Education, Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
- ROBERTSON, C. B.**
Professor of Secondary Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
- ROGERS, LESTER B.**
Professor of Education, Lawrence College, Appleton, Wis.
- RUEDIGER, W. C.**
Professor of Educational Psychology and Acting Dean of Teachers College, George Washington University, Washington, D.C.

RUSSELL, JAMES E.

Dean, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

SACHS, JULIUS

Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

SARGENT, WALTER

Professor of Aesthetic and Industrial Education, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

SEARS, J. B.

Assistant Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford, Cal.

SELVIDGE, R. W.

Professor of Manual Arts, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn.

SHELDON, H. D.

Professor of History of Education, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

SIES, RAYMOND W.

Professor of Educational Administration, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.

SMITH, MARY SHANNON

Professor of Education, Meredith College, Raleigh, N.C.

STEWART, ROLLAND M.

Assistant Professor of Education, State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa.

STORM, A. V.

Professor of Agricultural Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

STOWE, A. MONROE

Professor of Education, DePauw University, Greencastle, Ind.

STRAYER, G. D.

Professor of Educational Administration, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

STREET, JACOB R.

Dean, Teachers College, Syracuse University, Syracuse, N.Y.

SUTTON, WILLIAM SENECA

Dean of the Department of Education and Professor of Educational Administration, University of Texas, Austin, Tex.

SUZZALLO, HENRY

Professor of the Philosophy of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

SWIFT, EDGAR JAMES

Professor of Psychology and Education, Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

SWIFT, FLETCHER H.

Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.

TERMAN, LEWIS M.

Associate Professor of Education, Leland Stanford Junior University, Stanford, Cal.

THOMAS, WINFIELD S.

Professor of Education, University of California, Berkeley, Cal.

THOMPSON, FRANK E.

Professor of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colo.

THORNDIKE, EDWARD L.

Professor of Educational Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City.

TUFTS, JAMES H.

Professor of Philosophy, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.

UPDEGRAFF, HARLAN

Professor of Educational Administration, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

WARDLAW, PATTERSON

Professor of Pedagogy, University of South Carolina, Columbia, S.C.

WEBER, S. E.

Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, Professor of Education and Director of the Summer Session, Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.

WEST, HENRY S.

Professor of Secondary Education and Director of School Affiliation, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, Ohio.

WHITNEY, A. S.

Professor of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Mich.

WILLIAMS, CHARLES HAMILTON

Director of Extension Work, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri.

WILLIAMS, HENRY G.

Dean of the State Normal College, Ohio University, Athens, Ohio.

WILLIAMS, L. A.

Professor of School Administration, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N.C.

WOOFER, T. J.

Dean, School of Education, University of Georgia, Athens, Ga.

YOCUM, A. DUNCAN

Professor of Pedagogy, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pa.

A SYLLABUS FOR A THREE-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE
IN GERMAN PRESENTED AT THE GERMAN SECTION
OF THE TWENTY-FIFTH EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO, FRIDAY, APRIL
18, 1913¹

GERMAN I

READING

Reading of the grade of difficulty of the books mentioned below is recommended (60-100 pages).

Gronow, *Jung Deutschland*.

Guerber, *Märchen und Erzählungen, I*.

Seligmann, *Altes und Neues*.

Grimm, *Märchen* (easier ones).

Allen, *Daheim*, first part.

COMPOSITION

Drill in construction of sentences based on text. Free reproduction of very simple reading-matter, oral and written. Some translation into German of English based on text read.

1. Thoroughness in all phases of the work is necessary.
2. Special attention should be given to pronunciation.
3. Grammatical forms and rules of grammar should be learned through emphasis put on their application in the oral and written composition mentioned above.
4. The memorizing of a few easy poems is desirable. Incidentally this may be a great aid in the acquiring of a correct pronunciation.

GRAMMAR

Declension of the definite and indefinite articles, demonstratives, and possessive adjectives.

Noun declension: Strong and weak.

Adjective declension: Strong, weak, and mixed.

Declension of pronouns: Personal, Relative, Interrogative.

Verbs:

Principal parts of the most common strong verbs (about 40).

Conjugation of strong and weak verbs in five tenses.

Three forms of the imperative.

Present and imperfect tenses of the modals and their most common meanings.

The reflexive verb, present and imperfect.

¹ For a report of the conference at which this syllabus was discussed, see *School Review*, XXI (June, 1913), 403-5.

Prepositions with the dative.
Prepositions with the accusative.
Prepositions with the dative and accusative.
Word-order: Normal, Inverted, and Transposed.
Co-ordinating conjunctions.
Subordinating conjunctions (most common).

No topic need be presented in all its details but whatever is taken up should be done thoroughly. The mastery of noun, adjective, and verb forms and word-order is of especial importance.

GERMAN II

READING

Reading of the grade of difficulty of the books mentioned below is recommended (about 150 pages).

Grimm, *Märchen*.
Storm, *Imensee*.
Blüthgen, *Das Peterle von Nürnberg*.
Blüthgen, "Der Rügenfahrer," in *Der Weg zum Glück*, ed. by Bernhardt.
Leander, *Träumereien an französischen Kaminen*.
Gerstäcker, *Germelshausen*.
Seidel, *Der Lindenbaum*.
Zschokke, *Der zerbrochene Krug*.
Spyri, *Das Rosenresli and Moni der Geissbub*.
Wilhelmi, *Einer muss heiraten*.
Benedix, *Eigensinn*.
Volkman, *Kleine Geschichten*.
Schrakamp, *Deutsche Heimat*.
Nichols, *Easy German Reader*.
Collman, *Easy German Poetry for Beginners*.
Vos, *Materials for German Conversation*.
(A number of stories in this book are especially suited for free reproduction.)

COMPOSITION

Questions and answers on text read should lead to the oral and written reproduction of the same. Translation into German of connected English based on text read may be substituted in part.

GRAMMAR

Review of the grammar of German I.
Frequent review of the adjective declension and word-order during the year.
Inflections not completed in German I as follows:
Nouns: The mixed declension.
Adjectives: Comparison.

Verbs:

Principal parts of additional strong verbs and the most common irregular weak verbs.

Modals, and verbs used like the modals, in perfect tenses with accompanying infinitive, not including their use in dependent clauses.

The most common verbs requiring the dative.

The passive voice, five tenses.

The subjunctive mode in indirect discourse and unreal condition and the first conditional in connection with these.

The most common prepositions requiring the genitive.

Naturally subjects like the passive voice and the subjunctive mode cannot be mastered at this stage. Further drill must be given in succeeding years.

GERMAN III

READING

Reading of the grade of difficulty of the books mentioned below is recommended (about 400 pages).

Wildenbruch, *Das edle Blut*.

Schrakamp, *Ernstes und Heiteres*.

Storm, *Pole Poppenspäler*.

Rosegger, *Der Lex von Gutenhag*.

Freytag, *Die Journalisten*.

Lohmeyer, *Der Geissbub von Engelberg*.

Eichendorff, *Der Taugenichts*.

Mezger und Müller, *Kreuz und quer durch deutsche Lande*.

Magazines: *Aus Nah und Fern*; *Die Woche*.

Südermann, *Frau Sorge*.

Ernst, *Flachsmann als Erzieher*.

Meyer-Förster, *Karl Heinrich*.

Riehl, *Burg Neideck*.

Riehl, *Der Fluch der Schönheit*.

Keller, *Kleider machen Leute*.

Texts recommended for German II may well be used for more rapid reading in German III and for outside reading. The magazines are recommended for use throughout the course at the discretion of the teacher. The classics and the formal study of literature should not yet be attempted. It should rather be the aim to cultivate an intelligent appreciation of the works of the modern authors read in class.

COMPOSITION

Free reproduction of text read and simple theme-writing on topics suggested by the text.

GRAMMAR

Review of grammar with special emphasis on the difficult chapters. Further details of grammar as the need for them arises.

By the committee,

LYDIA M. SCHMIDT

JOSEPHINE DONIAL

FERDINAND STEDINGER

CHARLES GOETTSCH, *Chairman*

EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

On Wednesday evening, February 25, alumni and students of the University of Chicago in attendance at the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Richmond, Virginia, will meet for the annual Chicago banquet. The place and exact time of the meeting will be announced by placards posted at headquarters.

MRS. YOUNG RE-ELECTED

Peace, or at least a lull in the battle, has come again to the troubled school system of Chicago. A reconstructed Board of Education has re-elected Mrs. Young. To accomplish this result Mayor Harrison filled with supporters of Mrs. Young the places of four members who voted against her in the meeting of December 10. A fifth man, whose resignation the mayor also "accepted," having "seen the light" and having reversed his former vote, is allowed to retain his seat. The board, thus reconstructed, reinstated Mrs. Young. Mr. Shoop, as gracefully as possible, has again taken the position of assistant superintendent.

In the meantime the courts will be called upon to settle the rights of the ousted members of the board. Their attorney has presented to the state's attorney a petition for quo warranto proceedings against the new trustees. The state's attorney, whose consent to the proceedings is necessary, has announced in the public press that he will file the petition. The issue raised in the petition is the validity of "resignations" exacted, or received, by the mayor from prospective board members prior to their actual appointment. The dismissed members insist that such resignations make of the board mere "rubber-stamp" members. Moreover they assert that such resignations are void, because one cannot legally resign an office until he has actually been appointed. There seems to be both sense and equity in this contention. It would seem that all matters of great moment are to be passed on in the mayor's office, while board members are to be allowed to do routine duties so long as they do not oppose the wishes of the chief magistrate. If, however, the courts sustain the mayor, he seems to have found a new and effective method of "recalling" recalcitrant appointees. Indeed, until this matter is finally settled the action of the Auditorium meeting,

calling on Governor Dunne for a law to secure an elective school board with recall provisions attached, seems premature and unnecessary.

The *School Review* again insists that the public is, or ought to be, more interested in this and in the other educational questions involved in all this unseemly squabble, than it is in the personalities of either board members or of school officials. On one important matter supported by Mrs. Young, even the reconstructed board has expressed itself very emphatically. By the decisive vote, 13 to 7, the board has refused to allow "sex hygiene" (at least in the present form), to be taught in the schools. Another proposal of the superintendent, that all night study by high-school pupils be abolished, will come up for consideration in the near future.

TEACHERS' PENSIONS IN NEW YORK CITY

The Board of Retirement of the New York schools has recently submitted to the Board of Education a revised plan of teachers' pensions containing several important changes. The proposed law differs from the present one in several essentials; it levies larger contributions upon the teachers; it grades the pensions differently; and it provides a later retiring age. Among the more important provisions of the new plan may be cited these general principles.

1. Upon recommendation, any member of the teaching staff may retire on account of "medical unfitness," provided that such member is certified to be unfit and has served not less than twenty years.

2. Under the old law any teacher may retire after thirty years of service. The changes contemplate that the applicant must have reached the age of fifty-five if a woman, and of sixty if a man, and must have been in the service not less than twenty years, instead of fifteen as under the present law.

3. Under the old law all teachers contribute 1 per cent of their salaries. It is now proposed that 2 per cent shall be contributed by all those who have served less than ten years; 3 per cent by those who have served more than ten years and less than twenty years and whose salaries are above \$3,000 and below \$5,000; 4 per cent by those who have served more than twenty years and whose salaries are \$5,000 or more. In no case shall the total contribution in one year be more than \$240.

4. The minimum pension of \$600 has been retained; the amount can never be more than half-pay; and the upward limit is raised to \$3,000. The bill fixes the annuity at a sum equivalent to $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the salary for each year of service at the date of retirement.

It is quite natural that the increased burden of the annual contributions has brought a storm of protest from the rank and file of the teachers. Many have asserted that the increases will be a decided injustice, and even a severe hardship to a few. Not a few voices are heard saying that the whole scheme of pensions should be abandoned.

In a late meeting of the City Teachers' Association the following resolutions were passed, representing considerable unanimity of opinion.

1. That the assessment on teachers be limited to 1 per cent on all salaries.
2. An increase of the excise contribution from 5 to 7 per cent.
3. Any annual deficit of the fund to be taken care of by the city and the state.
4. That no change be made in the length of service required to participate in the pension fund.
5. Provided that changes as proposed are adopted and the teachers are taxed not more than 1 per cent, a pension of one-half salary to be formed, with a minimum pension of \$900 and a maximum pension of \$2,000. If teachers are to be taxed more than 1 per cent, then the above limits are opposed.

After a lengthy discussion a motion that the disability clause containing the twenty-year limit be reduced to ten years was laid on the table, as there was a wide divergence of opinion. However, it is to be hoped that the teachers of New York, through their new Teachers' Council, will not succeed in defeating the bill.

Certainly \$20 insurance premium out of a salary of \$1,000, with a maximum of \$240 for the largest salaries, does not seem too heavy a burden. Moreover, the provisions that make the burden fall most heavily upon newcomers and upon the well-paid men and women who are near the retiring limit, seem to be equitable. The New York teachers should realize that they are in the vanguard of a movement the burden of which will ultimately be borne more and more by the state. The United States will some day pension teachers, as Germany does, the entire expense being borne by the state. The provision that makes it possible for a teacher to retire because of physical unfitness, if the unique insurance term "medical unfitness" may be so construed, is highly to be commended. The greatest fear of salaried people who have others dependent upon them is the fear of incapacity. In such misfortune they not only may be unable to help their former dependents, but may even be a burden upon them. In this connection it is to be noted that the payments made from the retirement funds for sick leave, a maximum of ninety-five days' pay in one year, have been in the past the chief cause of depleting the resources of the Board of Retirement.

Young teachers to whom the day of retiring seems very remote should realize that they are securing cheap sickness insurance that guards them each passing year.

AGE OF RETIREMENT

The provision for an automatic retirement after a term of thirty years is in line with all good retirement plans in specifying a minimum age at which advantage may be taken of the pension. The age of retirement is most important from the point of view of the actuary. The expert employed in New York asserts that a retirement after thirty years would cost the teachers of New York $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of their annual salaries to maintain the fund on a sound basis; whereas the later retirement secured by the age limits of fifty-five and sixty years will reduce the cost to a little over 3 per cent. Just why there should be a distinction of five years in favor of the women, after the long fight for equality of sexes in New York, is an interesting, if unimportant, question.

There is one feature of the proposed law which appears questionable. Assume that the purpose of any pension system is not the reward of merit, but an actual protection against want in old age, or against distress in case of incapacity—to quote Dr. Lies, “one phase of the movement to dispose of the superannuated and disabled individual and to rob old age of its economic terrors.” If this is a fair assumption, the annuity of a kindergartner ought to be somewhere near the annuity of a ward principal. The only reason why one should receive \$600, while the other receives for the same misfortune two or three times \$600, is that the latter has paid two or three times as large premiums. The needs of the two women in misfortune may be assumed to be about equal. To be sure, the proposed law does throw a heavier burden upon the well-paid teachers; but it seems questionable whether their premium burden is really in proportion to the benefits which they may anticipate. It is this feeling of inequality that seems to irritate many of the New York teachers. The federal government pensions Grand Army officers more than privates; but the federal pension system is open to the objection that it is too much a reward of merit. Moreover, the privates in the army of New York teachers are the ones who are most likely to wear out in the service. The officers of a city-school system are relieved of some of the wear and tear of daily routine.

CLASS SPONSORS

For many years in the high schools of Fairmont, West Virginia, the custom has prevailed of naming each class for some prominent citizen of the city. Recently this custom has been used to bring the school

in closer touch with the people of the community. The man for whom the class is named is called the class "sponsor," and he assumes some of the responsibility which that term implies. Each class chooses its "sponsor" at the beginning of its second year in high school and after that time the class is known by his name, rather than by the numeral of the year in which it is to graduate. The citizen whose name the class bears feels personal interest in the class collectively, and as far as possible individually. He entertains them usually in his own home once or twice during their Junior and Senior years; he assists them in different ways in their various class enterprises.

The sponsor of the present Senior class takes great interest in the individual members. At the beginning of their Junior year he went to the school building and secured a list of their names. He also inquired about all those who had dropped out of the class; he succeeded in getting several to return to school. He has attended all class functions and has given talks on various subjects.

A member of the Board of Education says that he gained a better knowledge of the spirit and purpose of the school through this association with high-school students than he acquired in his official position as a member of the board. The sponsor of another class kept the class together after graduation by organizing its members into a local historical association. This organization has done some commendable work in arousing an interest in the preservation of things in the community that are of historical value. Other class sponsors have assisted their classes in presenting gifts to the school, or in some instances they have rendered material assistance to the high-school authorities in upholding proper conduct among the students.

OPEN-AIR SCHOOLS

Director Leonard Ayres of the division of education of the Sage Foundation has published a bulletin on open-air schools from which the public learns that since Providence, Rhode Island, started the first open-air schools in 1908, the number of cities having them has increased as follows: 1908, three cities; 1909, seven cities; 1910, fifteen cities; 1911, thirty-two cities; 1912, sixty cities.

Roughly speaking, the number of cities having open-air schools has doubled each year. At the recent International Congress on School Hygiene no subject was more eagerly discussed. At present the most interesting phases of the movement are the successful attempts of educators and architects to make the beneficial results of open-air schooling available for normal children in ordinary schools. The booklet presents the more important facts and factors of this movement.

Of the history of the movement the bulletin says:

The first open-air school was started in Charlottenburg, a suburb of Berlin, in 1904. More than a hundred anaemic, ailing children, behind in their classes, were taken from the schoolrooms and taught in a pine forest. Three months later nearly all of these children returned to their schools, rosy, sturdy, free from disease, and further advanced in their lessons than their normal schoolmates. Today the out-of-door school is an integral part of the German educational system.

In America credit for being the first to put the idea into practice must be divided between New York City and Providence, Rhode Island. In 1904 New York City lent one of its teachers and supplied equipment for a class in the Sea Breeze Hospital for Tuberculous Children. In 1908 Providence started the first open-air school as the term is now understood. Since that time over sixty American cities have established open-air schools. No single case of failure has been recorded. No city that has once undertaken the work has abandoned it.

The natural query is, Why need a child be anaemic to secure abundant fresh air and warm sunshine at school?

UNION OPPOSITION TO TRADE SCHOOLS

From Saginaw, Michigan, come the rumblings of opposition to certain aspects of trade schools that may perhaps become widespread and bitter. The Pattern-Makers' Union presented two resolutions to the Federation of Labor in Saginaw, directed against the policy of the Arthur Hill Trade School. The first resolution set forth that finished patterns had been furnished the Werner-Pfleiderer Company by the management of the school. It was pointed out that such a policy is detrimental to the men employed in this line of work. Such a policy was likened to the prison contract system, as it permits concerns to get finished work at the price of raw material. The second resolution demanded that the present instructor in pattern-making be dismissed, and that a local man, a member of the union, be appointed in his stead. Both of these resolutions were adopted by the Federation and copies were sent to the school board.

The first of these resolutions might readily be expected from organized labor, which looks jealously at any attempt to take work from its members, which in extreme cases will not allow a man to teach his trade to his own son, which in the past has often been opposed to machinery on the ground that it robs men of the right to work. The second resolution, insisting that a union man be employed as instructor, is indeed consistent with the principle of the "closed shop." The logic

as applied to the teaching profession is exceedingly dangerous. Carried to its conclusion the thinking of these labor men suggests that all teachers ought to be unionized. Indeed, pushed to the extreme, such logic indicates that any worker, who produces a salable product not strictly in the line of his life work, ought to be enjoined from selling it, because forsooth if he does sell, he will be infringing on the right of someone to earn a living.

CONFERENCE OF EVENING SCHOOLS IN PHILADELPHIA

The tendency for various institutions giving evening work to come together for co-operative effort as in Des Moines and other cities has been carried far in Philadelphia. Under the leadership of the Public Education Association representatives from the various agencies carrying on evening classes met in conference. There were represented the Y.M.C.A., Drexel Institute, Franklin Institute, School of Industrial Art, Spring Garden Institute, Wagner Institute, Temple University, Trades School, and the Evening Public Schools of Philadelphia. This meeting eventuated in a Conference of Evening Schools which organized as a section of the Public Education Association, to be known as the "Industrial and Technical Education Conference of the Public Education Association." Its membership consists of educators and employers. The Conference is to act as a clearing-house, to systematize and utilize to the fullest extent all the industrial and technical opportunities offered throughout the city in evening schools.

Following are some of the results already accomplished: All the schools, whether semi-private or public in character, have been brought together. Joint advertisements through posters and through the press have been issued. Some employers have offered to pay a portion of the cost of tuition for any of their employees. Some establishments are organizing night classes in their own shops. A meeting was held of all municipal employees in Philadelphia. The object was to bring to the attention of the men employed in the various departments of the city the means by which they may equip themselves for positions of greater efficiency and higher responsibility.

PART-TIME CO-OPERATIVE SCHOOL IN FITCHBURG, MASSACHUSETTS

Evening schools, however, can at best serve only an exceptional minority who have a surplus of zeal, health, and vigor. For the large mass of young people who have to enter early into the world of wages, the schools ought to provide some means of combining wage-earning

and schooling. In Massachusetts the part-time system, flexible enough to meet widely varying conditions, is being largely extended.

This movement to unite the school and the shop is perhaps best illustrated in the part-time co-operative schools of Fitchburg, Mass. During the last year the boys in these part-time schools of Fitchburg earned about \$8,000. The earning of such a sum is, however, relatively minor in importance. Of far greater import is the fact that the co-operative school is succeeding in preparing highly efficient workmen. It is making skilled mechanics out of boys who might otherwise become unskilled laborers.

Fitchburg, under the leadership of W. B. Hunter, Director of the Industrial Department of the High School, began the part-time plan in 1908. Ten firms of manufacturers entered into an agreement with the school authorities by which boys desiring to learn a trade can remain in school half-time and work as apprentices in shops the other half. The course is of four years' duration, the first being wholly spent in school and the next three years alternating weekly between shop and school. The manufacturers take the boys in pairs, so that by alternating they have one of the pair always at work and likewise the school is provided with one of the pair. Shopwork consists of instruction in all the operations necessary to the particular trade. The first year is spent entirely in school. The boys receive for the first year 10 cents an hour; for the second, 11 cents; for the third, 12½ cents; making \$165 for the first year; \$181.50 for the second; \$206.25 for the third; a total of \$552.75 for the three years.

The school year, 20 weeks, is given over to English, arithmetic, shop mathematics, algebra, geometry, mechanism of machines, freehand and mechanical drawing, chemistry, physics. One course in civics creeps in beside English as a cultural study. This course was insisted upon by the manufacturers that "the boys might become better mechanics, capable of advancing into the brightest possibilities in the trade."

The Fitchburg plan begun in 1908, like the somewhat similar plan begun in 1909 in Beverly, Mass., is of course based upon the experiments begun in 1906 by Dean Herman Schneider of the department of Engineering of the University of Cincinnati. Professor Frank Mitchell Leavitt in his recent book, *Examples of Industrial Education*, predicts that the part-time idea, capable of being adapted in such a large variety of ways, will ultimately be adopted by many schools. "One might almost say that wherever two boys could be 'paired' and one employer could be found who would take them alternately, any school . . . could inaugurate a system of part-time co-operative education."

BOOK REVIEWS

A Manual for Writers. Covering the Needs of Authors for Information on Rules of Writing and Practices in Printing. By JOHN MATHEWS MANLY and JOHN ARTHUR POWELL. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1913. Pp. viii+225. \$1.25 net.

In these days, when, as the publishers of books and the producers of plays assure us, every intelligent and fairly educated person—as well as some who have not these qualifications—has the manuscript of the great novel or epoch-making play either in preparation or else shuttling through the mails, a volume of information in regard to the technique of writing ought to meet with widespread interest. Especially ought this to be true in the case of Manly and Powell's *Manual for Writers*, for this is a book compiled by men who are qualified to speak with authority, the one on questions of propriety and usage, the other on the practice of publishers. It is free from the dogmatism and petty pedantry which so generally characterize the style-books of newspapers, magazines, and publishing houses. Upon points where usage is divided, the authors, as they have carefully pointed out in the Preface, have for the sake of uniformity and practical efficiency presented only a single form. Its great merit lies in the fact that it is authoritative. With a few minor exceptions which are practically negligible, its rules and precepts are unquestionable.

The book in its attempt at comprehensiveness covers three distinct fields. It has, of course, the merit of completeness, as a handbook of this sort should have; but not a few of its defects arise from what the writers themselves characterize as "the mania to tell it all." The first chapter on "English Composition" furnishes rather an introduction to the rest of the work. It is apparent that the authors were aware of the impossibility of saying anything new on such a subject to a student of writing in the space of twenty-five pages. On the other hand, they have not been content to confine themselves to giving sound practical precepts to the novice. In the efforts to interest both, they have written in a style which may be characterized as "the aim to hit it if it is a deer, miss it if it is a calf." Except for such pithy sayings as, "The effort to avoid common ideas often results in missing common-sense," "Excellence lives by sacrifice," and "A thought is not wholly born until it is expressed," the space might better have been given to other topics.

The second part, consisting of the next six chapters, deals with the problems of grammatical propriety and mechanical accuracy in writing. Were it not for the fact that the authors presuppose an appreciation of the value of accuracy and a desire to attain it, this portion might serve as an admirable text for college students. It is true that the chapters on punctuation and on

capitalization give merely rules to be followed, with little explanation of underlying principles; but one must remember that this is a manual, not a textbook. To anyone who has ever attempted to present similar material, the orderly arrangement of the complex mass of information shows the most painstaking skill.

In the chapter on "Grammatical Notes" there is included a list of words and phrases commonly misused. The list is so well chosen that, although it consists of only three hundred words, it includes most of the faults one has learned to look for in the manuscript of young writers. It is free, moreover, from the finical niceties of the purist. One can, therefore, only wonder the more at the inclusion of *demean* in the sense of "degrade," especially when such an authority as *The New English Dictionary* recognizes this use of the word.

The last five chapters answer the questions that arise in regard to the technical preparation of manuscript for publication. In the brief space of fifty pages it gives all the information necessary for an author in regard to type-forms, illustrations, proofreading, and the law of copyright. As the chapter on "Illustrations," contributed by Mr. A. C. McFarland, General Superintendent of the University of Chicago Press, presents material which is entirely new in handbooks of this sort, one can only regret that he did not give a more detailed explanation of the various processes and of their relative values.

Another feature both novel and valuable is the advice given in regard to the preparation of a careful index. Every person who has reason to refer to this book must give thanks that the authors practice what they preach. The index is a model.

The volume contains in concise form so much reliable information that every would-be author should have, that it ought to be recommended by readers for magazines and publishing houses, and by those harassed professors of English who are constantly appealed to by a perplexed public to decide questions of usage.

J. M. THOMAS

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Jung Deutschland. By ANNA T. GRONOW. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1912. Pp. xvi+264. \$0.90.

Jung Deutschland is a new type of textbook for the study of German that has come from the press within the last year. It is a type of book for which progressive teachers have searched the publishers' lists in vain so far, a textbook which is not only thoroughly adapted to the "direct method" of teaching modern languages but also a work which is unmistakably the result of careful modern classroom practice. It is the lack of a textbook possessing these qualifications that has so far made the successful teaching of German so difficult in our secondary schools.

The book consists of carefully prepared selections of reading-material,

stories, anecdotes, descriptions, letters, dialogues, rhymes, riddles, proverbs, and exercises based on these. A few well-chosen songs with music are included, and an outline of the essentials of grammar is appended. Artistic illustrations conveying a German atmosphere add a charm to the book that is unique and invaluable. The reading-material, which is simple enough to be used in the upper grades of the elementary school as well as in the high school, is essentially German in character. The grammatical constructions are confined to the essentials, and as the text offers no difficulties in the way of vocabulary or subject-matter, the grammatical forms and principles will be easily discerned by the pupil. A novel feature is the postponement of the adjective declension to a much later stage of the work than is usually the case, the utmost simplicity being thus secured. Further to insure the mastery of the material presented, numerous questions and exercises based on the reading-material accompany the text throughout. The author here again applies sound pedagogical theory by handling the material in such a variety of ways that it easily becomes more permanently fixed in the mind of the pupil. The exercises are indeed a noteworthy feature of the book. As a practical demonstration of how to teach German through the German, they are far in advance of anything that we are accustomed to find in our textbooks and will merit examination by all those who are interested in more efficient teaching of the German language.

Those teachers who have become interested in fostering a good German *Aussprache* will regret the absence of a few directions in regard to the use of what might be called "practical phonetics." This lack is especially to be regretted as the text itself furnishes the rhymes which can be used so effectively in the acquisition of a good pronunciation. I would also suggest in a revised edition the substitution of a few longer selections for the large number of short pieces and a more careful working-out of details, especially in the beginning of the book.

Jung Deutschland is one of several books just from the press which seems to indicate that we are to have renaissance in German texts for secondary schools, and a corresponding improvement in modern-language instruction in our country. Individual teachers have used the "direct method" before this, but the prevailing type of textbook has necessitated many compromises with this method on the part of the average teacher. *Jung Deutschland* is a type of textbook that will undoubtedly be generally demanded in the near future.

Sprach- und Lesebuch. By W. H. GOHDES and H. A. BUSCHEK. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1912. Pp. vi+366. \$1.15.

This textbook, recently published, is one of the new books which indicate that the revolution in the teaching of modern languages which has so long been under way in Europe is beginning to assume a more serious aspect in our own country. It is thoroughly in accord with the requirements of the "direct method" and is a type of book very similar to Gronow's *Jung Deutschland*, reviewed above.

The reading-material is excellent in the simplicity of its style and the nature of its contents. Numerous exercises, similar to those in Mrs. Gronow's book, are based on this reading-material. In addition to these excellent features the book has the distinction of being the first to incorporate successfully one of the most prominent features of the direct method, viz., exercises designed solely for the acquisition of the vocabulary. It is generally admitted that the teaching of German in our country is still too much under the influence of the old grammar method and that the work is not done thoroughly enough, but it has not been generally recognized that the failure to acquire an adequate vocabulary is one of the most serious defects in the instruction in German. Recently a few texts have aimed at effecting an improvement in this respect without, however, introducing the means whereby this end could be attained.

The book is well adapted for secondary work. It covers perhaps more ground than can be covered in one year in the average high school but simplicity and clearness characterize the material and method of presentation throughout. The style of printing and arrangement of the material are exceptionally successful and contribute in no small degree to the general effectiveness of the book.

To the main part of the book are added paraphrases of the reading-selections for translation into German for those who consider these necessary, and an outline of German grammar. There is no discussion of the *Lautehre* and there are no songs or illustrations. The *Sprach- und Lesebuch* represents, however, a great advance in our high-school texts for beginning German and is a book that should find immediate favor and a wide use.

LYDIA M. SCHMIDT

UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

The Teacher's Health. By LEWIS M. TERMAN. (Riverside Educational Monographs.) Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913.

This book gives a résumé of the recent investigations that concern the teacher's health, and contains excellent suggestions in regard to the somatic and mental hygiene of the individual teacher. Teaching, as a number of studies indicate, is an occupation dangerous both to the physical and the mental health. The investigations indicate that the teacher is especially liable to neurasthenia and to tuberculosis. The statistics cited are old and not very satisfactory; but so far as they go they indicate that in this country the mortality from tuberculosis for the teaching profession is very high, apparently greater even than for the notoriously unhealthy occupation of the stonemason.

The author places the responsibility for hygienic reform, as other investigators have done, on the normal school. Reform should come (1) by lengthening the course for normal-school training, instead of attempting to crowd three years' work into two, or four into three; (2) by selecting the candidates for admission to normal schools after a thorough physical examination by experts under the direction of the school itself, and by another medical examination o

at the completion of the normal-school course; (3) by giving adequate instruction in school hygiene and personal hygiene in the normal-school course; and (4) selection of teachers on the basis of personal fitness of character and training and health should take the place of the negative function of rejecting candidates on the basis of certain standards of scholarship.

This excellent little book is a good omen for the improvement of the teaching profession. It is only by regard for the laws of physical and mental hygiene that the teacher's work can be made safe and efficient; and the author's plea for the reform of the normal schools with regard to school hygiene cannot be emphasized too strongly. That the study of this subject should often be omitted from the normal-school curriculum or treated inadequately in connection with school management is one of the strange features of modern education.

WILLIAM H. BURNHAM

CLARK UNIVERSITY
WORCESTER, MASS.

The Story of the Ancient Nations. A Text-Book for High-Schools.
By WILLIAM L. WESTERMANN. New York: D. Appleton & Co.,
1912. Pp. xvii+554. \$1.50.

Westermann's *The Story of the Ancient Nations* is a clear narrative which brings into relief the salient points of ancient history, and in its emphasis on literature, art, and social life, and the use of ancient authorities, aims to exemplify the trend of present-day historical teaching. Sometimes the condensation of political and military history, in order to leave room for details of culture, too often neglected in secondary textbooks, leads to noteworthy omissions, such as the work of Brasidas in alienating the allies of Athens in the north (without which the battle of Amphipolis, mentioned on p. 167 is not clear), the surrender of the Spartans at Sphacteria, the Thirty Tyrants at Athens, and the battle of the Ticinus River. The arrangement is occasionally questionable. It is doubtful whether the sacred games belong in chap. x under the heading "Democracy Develops in Attica"; chap. xxv, "The Spread of the Power of Rome over Italy" would be less confusing to the young student if divided into two chapters, one on government and one on the conquest of Italy. A few statements are open to criticism on the score of possible misinterpretation, e.g., on p. 241, in the words "Zeno, a Jew" the author probably had in mind "ille Poenulus," Cic. *Fin.* iv. 56, and his own previous statement in chap. v that the Phoenicians and Hebrews were both Semites, but the expression is likely to leave a wrong impression on the high-school pupil. The pupil would also be misled on p. 164 among the topics for oral or written report by "The Literary Ability of Aspasia.—The Dialogue, 'Menexenus' of Plato."

The book as a whole, despite these criticisms of minor points, conforms to modern requirements in the teaching of history and can safely be recommended as a textbook.

ETHEL E. BEERS

MEDILL HIGH SCHOOL
CHICAGO

Education: A Survey of Tendencies. By A. M. WILLIAMS, M.A. Glasgow: James Maclehase & Sons, 1912. Pp. ix+225. 3s. net.

Education is here considered "as the story of man's attempt to ascertain what is of value and how to relate this to the child's mind." The author asserts that "it is of supreme importance that ratepayers form some just conception of what education means, what it can and what it cannot do, and how it can be carried on. Unless they realize that education is the foundation of every state, they will be indifferent to it and they will grudge to pay for it. This book has been written in order to show the need of education to a true national life and its claims upon the interest and support of citizens."

Books on education are usually by the teacher and for the teacher. It is interesting to find one which reads right along and has the intention of revealing to Everyman what is the school system he is expected to support. It will profit the teacher to read the book.

It is strange someone in America has not thought to render a similar service to American citizens by presenting to them the general educational movement in relation to the school system.

The Social Composition of the Teaching Population. By LOTUS DELTA COFFMAN, PH.D.

Two Types of Rural Schools with Some Facts Showing Economic and Social Conditions. By ERNEST BARNHAM, PH.D.

Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education. Nos. 41 and 51.

Dr. Coffman divides his field into two sections: (1) Group Relationships, including age of beginning, the true age of teachers, years of service, training of teachers beyond the elementary school and salaries; (2) Socio-economic Background, including parentage of teachers, nativity, income, family conditions, size of family, and occupation of parents.

The problems discussed in six pages at the close are: Feminization, Salaries, Pensions, Training before Service, Training in Service, A Craft Spirit and An Aroused Public Conscience.

Twenty-two states contribute material—the range is from New Hampshire and Maryland to Texas and Montana; 5,215 answers to a questionnaire sent out were used—1,178 from men, 4,037 from women.

The problems to which the author wishes to direct attention are illustrated in the sketch given of the typical American teacher of each sex. Following is a part of that of the male. "The typical American male public-school teacher, assuming that he can be described in terms of the medians previously referred to, but remembering that a median is a point about which individuals vary and that our hypothetical individual is as likely to be below as above it, is twenty-nine years of age, having begun teaching when he was almost twenty

years of age after he had received but three or four years of training beyond the elementary school. In the nine years elapsing between the age at which he began teaching and his present age, he has had seven years of experience and his salary at the present time is \$489 a year. Both of his parents were living when he entered teaching and both spoke the English language. They had an annual income from their farm of \$700 which they were compelled to use to support themselves and their four or five children. . . . His salary [at the beginning, \$390] increased rather regularly during the first six years of his experience, or until he was about twenty-six years of age. After that he found that age and experience played a rather insignificant part in determining his salary, but that training still afforded him a powerful leverage."

The writer accepts feminization as "a condition which cannot be averted." What concerns him most is the fact that "the population which teaching selects is restricted as to its opportunities for personal improvement and for liberal culture . . . the families thus represented in teaching have an income that is close to the bare living family wage; and that these families are engaged mainly in agricultural and mechanical pursuits." The relation between these facts and current salaries does not seem clear to the author.

An interesting contribution to the ends sought in this study would be one which reported the occupations and incomes of brothers and sisters of teachers. This might be even more significant than the showing made of these facts in the case of the fathers.

The greater part of the material relating to secondary schools in this report is taken from one of Dr. Thorndike's studies. The need of attention to the secondary schools which train our rural teachers is made evident.

Dr. Burnham has made a study of the two types of rural schools—the district school and the consolidated school. He has selected for this purpose four townships in each of the states of Ohio and Michigan. While he has purposely confined his effort, for the most part, to the elementary schools, there are incidental references to the secondary-school situation which are of considerable significance.

One conclusion is that "the provision of worthy secondary-school instruction is probably too expensive a task for any one strictly rural township." A comparison of expense between the city of Kalamazoo and the consolidated rural schools studied shows in the city in 1911, 15 per cent of the total enrolment placed in the high schools requiring 25 per cent of the annual budget for teachers' salaries. In the consolidated schools the 19 per cent in the high schools used 46 per cent of the teachers' salaries.

"High schools which average 37 pupils in four grades are certainly as much to be deplored as are 10-pupil district schools."

"A consensus of the opinions of the principals of the high schools in Kalamazoo County, taken in 1907, showed the district-school-prepared high-school students to be less well prepared than the town-school-prepared high-school students, in the single subject of English."

" . . . the unit for the elementary and the high school must be different, by the dictation of physical conditions governing a sparse rural population whose chief economic resource is farm property. It seems clear that if the rural townships studied here ever get good secondary-school instruction within driving distance of their homes, they will be helped to it by the state."

Dr. Burnham's thesis is possibly somewhat overcrowded by its varied lines of interest, but it is very suggestive as an illustration of a study showing an unusual range of co-operation in its making.

The Bedales Record 1911-1912. Bedales School, Petersfield, Hants, England. 5s.

A coeducational boarding-school of elementary and secondary grades would be considered unusual anywhere, but in England it is especially noteworthy. Apart from the feature of coeducation the school has many remarkable characteristics and its annual record might well be taken as a model by headmasters, as it is not often that one is able to gain from a report so clear an idea of the movement of a school's life. Mr. Badley, who has made the school, was an associate of Cecil Reddie and Edward Carpenter in the founding of Abbotsholme, but left that school to organize one which should be more thoroughly democratic. The *Record* tells of new buildings, the organization of the staff, lecture courses, athletics, entertainments, and much else common to boarding-schools. Especial interest centers in the reports of the methods worked out whereby the school may escape that grave danger to which private schools are subject—the lack of outside expert examination and supervision. "There was an inspection . . . by no fewer than seven of the Board's inspectors, who examined every part of the work, both indoor and out, and every side of the school life with great thoroughness." The fact of the inspection, voluntarily called for, and the publishing of the report indicates the co-operative and democratic spirit of the management.

One gains an impression of careful thought to provide machinery which shall free the life of the school along lines of natural development. Thus the "Merrie Evenings" provide a wide range of frolic and jollity in which evidently all parts of the school participate. Voluntary occupations have a large place in the Bedales educational scheme. The school is as well organized to forward these interests as it is to bring about the successful university examination records its students make. Among these occupations are architecture. One boy "has designed and drawn out plans and elevations of a house created by himself." Another has made sketches "mostly specimens of the timber and brick or plaster houses" in the neighborhood. A third "has followed up the evolution of the chancel as shown in the examples of this neighborhood." A new building has for its architect and builder old Bedalians who have become prominent in their professions.

Other lines are bookbinding, fire brigades (one for each sex), photography,

meteorology, entomology, the work of two orchestras, a choir, life saving, riding, shooting, skating, pets, boxing, fencing (compulsory for senior girls!), golf, fives, dancing, and excavating. The neighborhood contains many old Roman villas, some of which have already been worked out and reported. Others are now being excavated under the direction of an old Bedalian who has had his training, by the way, in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Cambridge University. Lines of fortification, walls, pottery, nails, glass, and bones have been found. There are excellent illustrations, also examples of serious and humorous work by students and members of the corps.

The alumni record shows men and women in valuable service throughout the British Isles, in India, Australia, South Africa, and British Columbia.

Newark in the Public Schools of Newark. A Course of Study on Newark: Its Geography, Civics, and History, with Biographical Sketches and a Reference Index. Prepared by J. WILMER KENNEDY, Assistant Superintendent of Schools. Published by the Board of Education, Newark, N.J.

"The helpful kind of patriotism is the kind that grows out of a knowledge of one's town, of her growth, her people, her government and her needs." "Newark has been studied in the schools for several years. It now occupies a prominent position in the curriculum. The important place now given it is due to the rapid growth among our citizens in recent years of interest in the city's welfare, beauty, and healthfulness." These extracts are from an introductory note by the city librarian, John Colton Dana, who has been no small factor in the social progress of the community during the past decade.

One section of the book is given to Geography for grades 3A, 4A, and 7A. In the last named grade the divisions are Newark "(a) as a type of the manufacturing and commercial city, (b) as part of New York and the Metropolitan District in New Jersey, (c) as offering special advantages for residence and trade."

Part II deals with Civic Hygiene and Civics for grades 4B, 4A, 5A, and 5B, with syllabi on the "Sanitation of the School," "Experience of Other Cities in Cleaning Streets," "Parks," "Playgrounds," "Pure Food Laws," "Labor of Women and Children," and "Quarantine."

For grades 6B, 6A, 7B, 7A, 8B, and 8A are prepared syllabi on "The Community as a Social Group," "Patriotism," "Government as an Organized Community Action," "Billboard Nuisance," "Shade Trees," "What Taxes Do," and similar subjects. There is an outline of the city government including a discussion of Government by Commission.

Part III is entitled "Biography, History and Literature." "Historic Spots," "Leading Events," and "Literary Landmarks" are included.

There is an excellent index which shows the encyclopedic range of topics accessible for study.

This book is intended for elementary schools but it may well serve as a model on which can be worked out a text for high and normal schools on similar lines. No greater service can be rendered a community through its adolescent members than by aiding them through intimate knowledge of the home community to an appreciation of larger citizenship.

TRAINING SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS
BALTIMORE, MD.

FRANK A. MANNY

How New York City Administers Its Schools. By ERNEST CARROLL MOORE. Yonkers, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1913. Pp. 321.
With an introduction by PAUL H. HANUS.

This is one of the reports made in connection with the "School Inquiry" conducted in the city of New York during 1911 and 1912, under the direction of Professor Paul H. Hanus, of Harvard. To Professor Moore was assigned the work of investigating the organization, work, and status of the Board of Education, and the local school boards, for the city. The report of Professor Moore, when completed and submitted, was "rejected" by the Committee on School Inquiry of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment of the City of New York, the body which had authorized the inquiry. After much newspaper criticism of this action, the report was later on published in the *City Record*, but with the concluding chapter, containing the specific recommendations, omitted. The report has now been republished by the World Book Co., in good form and in an attractive binding. Besides the full report of 237 pages, there are added four appendices, covering 84 pages, and including the now famous "two hundred and forty-one questions" submitted to Professor Moore by Chairman John Purroy Mitchel, ostensibly to ascertain on what facts and evidence the allegations and conclusions of the report were based, with Professor Moore's answers to each. These questions and answers form interesting reading, as they reveal very clearly the lack of understanding of the committee and the motives which actuated the so-called "rejection" of the report.

This report is one of the most important and valuable of all those issued in connection with the New York School Inquiry, and will prove to be interesting reading to all who are interested in the problems of city school administration. In a series of eighteen chapters Professor Moore has set forth clearly and forcibly the present situation in the administration of the schools of New York City, and shows how completely the administration is conducted by what he calls "a paralyzed arm." The school system of the city, by both the law and the decisions of the courts declared to be an institution of the state, he shows, to a degree indeed surprising, has by rules, regulations, and charter requirements been subordinated to the control of the city hall and its influences, with all that this in this particular city implies. The machinery of administra-

tion has been made complex, devious, and subversive of the purposes for which schools have been established and maintained, and with the clear intent and purpose of bringing the school administration under the control of the municipal administration. The recent unsuccessful attempt to secure new charter provisions from the legislature to legalize and extend what had already been accomplished by wholly illegal methods was but another evidence of the desire to subordinate the school department of the city completely to city hall domination and control. What this would mean in the administration of the school system of such a city is not hard to understand.

The organization and work of the Board of Education, and the present conditions under which their work is carried on, are set forth; the financial aspect of the problem, with especial reference to estimates, apportionments, sites, buildings, and maintenance are shown; the need of a fundamental reorganization is pointed out; and in a final chapter the fundamental administrative needs of the school system are set forth in a series of twenty-eight specific recommendations. The reasoning is so clear and able, the facts set forth are so convincing, and the recommendations made are so sound, that the uninitiated may be a little surprised that the board which had ordered the inquiry should have at first "rejected," and later done what they could to condemn, so able, straightforward, and constructive a statement of conditions and needs. The only conclusion left to be drawn is that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, intent on subordinating the school department completely to city hall control, did not relish a report which revealed so clearly the many ways in which the city hall authorities had suborned the law for the sake of personal control. A board intent on improving educational conditions would have welcomed a report which set forth so clearly and logically the fundamental theory of state versus local control in school affairs. This "rejection" only revealed another aspect of the vicious influences which inspired and lay back of this whole New York inquiry; only called new attention to this one part of the report; and should make future legislative attempts to reduce the school system of the city to subjection more difficult of attainment.

Professor Moore's report is an important contribution to the literature of city school administration, and will be read with interest by all interested in this important phase of the city school administrative problem. Its logic and conclusions are as applicable to Chicago, San Francisco, Minneapolis, or New Orleans as to New York City, and the volume should be thoughtfully read and studied by city superintendents and students of educational administration. For this important division of the School Inquiry it was good that Professor Hanus had a man used to the western method of calling things by their proper names, and one accustomed to call a halt in the game whenever he saw unmistakable evidence of cheating with the cards.

ELLWOOD P. CUBBERLEY

STANFORD UNIVERSITY, CAL.

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¹ *Abbreviations.*—*Atlan.*, *Atlantic Monthly*; *Cent.*, *Century*; *Educa.*, *Education*; *Educa. Bi-mo.*, *Educational Bi-monthly*; *Educa. R.*, *Educational Review*; *English J.*, *English Journal*; *Lit. D.*, *Literary Digest*; *Liv. Age*, *Living Age*; *Man. Train. M.*, *Manual Training Magazine*; *Outl.*, *Outlook*; *Pedagog. Sem.*, *Pedagogical Seminary*; *Pop. Sci. Mo.*, *Popular Science Monthly*; *Psychol. Clinic*, *Psychological Clinic*; *School R.*, *School Review*; *Teach. Coll. Rec.*, *Teachers College Record*; *Tech. World M.*, *Technical World Magazine*; *Train. School M. (N.J.)*, *Training School Magazine (New Jersey)*; *U.S. Bur. of Educa. Bull.*, *United States Bureau of Education Bulletin*.

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